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The Week.

THE Senate has, during the week, discussed and passed the bill to reconstruct Georgia. It directs, first, that the Governor of the State shall convene by proclamation all the persons declared elected by Gen. Meade's proclamation of June 25, 1868, who shall then proceed to organize themselves as the General Assembly, "in conformity with the Constitution of the United States, according to the provisions of this act." Each member must then take oath that he never, after having held any public office, lent aid to the rebellion, "except in consequence of direct physical force." The Circuit Court of the United States for the District of Georgia will take cognizance, and shall have sole and exclusive jurisdiction, of perjury, and the Circuit or District Court of attempts to prevent the taking of the oath, or participation in the proceedings of either House after the oath has been taken. The exclusion, on account of race, color, or previous enslavement, of any one thus duly constituted a member, is next declared to be "illegal and revolutionary," and is prohibited. Upon application of the Governor, the President shall employ the military and naval forces to enforce the provisions of the act. And, finally, the Legislature shall ratify the Fifteenth Amendment before Senators and Representatives are admitted to seats in Congress. On Tuesday, the bill was carried through the House by General Butler.

Other noticeable proceedings in the Senate were the passage between Messrs. Carpenter and Sumner over the Spanish gun-boats, on Wednesday week; an elaborate and well-considered argument against the eight-hour law by Mr. Morrill, of Vermont, who pronounced it a failure in the Government's experience, and an injustice to artisans and other laborers everywhere; and, on Monday, Mr. Schurz's bill to reform the Civil Service. This bill is for several sections copied almost verbatim after Mr. Jenckes's, but contains very important differences, on which we have not time to dwell this week. The House passed the Census Bill on Thursday, rejecting, finally, Mr. Jenckes's amendment; it has been postponed, but still saved, by the Senate. It was on Thursday, also, that Mr. Mungen, of Ohio, rose into obscurity on the subject of repudiation, and that, under the lead of Mr. Garfield, Republicans and Democrats embraced in defence of the national honor, and wondered who had ever thought of tarnishing it.

Astonishing as the Georgia Reconstruction Bill is by itself, it becomes more so when one reads the arguments by which it is defended.

Georgia has been already admitted to the Union, under a solemn act of Congress, or, in other words, under a pledge of the nation, after having formally fulfilled all the conditions exacted of her by the original Reconstruction Acts. What the supporters of the present bill say in support of the theory that she is not in the Union, is, that her Senators had not been admitted to their places in the Senate, the majority of the Senate pronouncing them disqualified—something which might happen to New York to-morrow—and this is gravely given now as a reason why the General Government may overturn the State Government, and put the people under martial law, and impose fresh conditions of reconstruction. The expulsion of the negro members of the Legislature was a great outrage, but the constitutionality of it was very sensibly, on President Grant's recommendation, submitted to the Court of the State. The Supreme Court has accordingly decided that it was unconstitutional, and it now remains for the Legislature to abide by the judicial decision, which it is generally believed it will do when it meets in January. But the promoters of the present measure, apparently having a horror of the slow and regular processes of American jurisprudence, and being enamored of imperial ways of settling things, refuse to wait, and have accordingly passed an act repudiating the legislation of last winter, over which the country toiled and sweated so much, breaking the public faith, and setting a shocking example of contempt for law. The worst of it is that one of the excuses put forward in defence of this high-handed violence is, that it is done for the protection of negroes and loyal men against the violence of their neighbors, as if the way to provide for their protection was to keep them before the eyes of their fellow-citizens as the cause of the subversion of the State Government; and as if the respect of juries and magistrates for the law of the land could be promoted by exhibitions of Congressional disregard of it; and as if, in case the public opinion of Georgia cannot, or ought not, be trusted to for the protection of Georgian citizens, we ought not at once to provide permanent gendarmerie and Federal magistrates, armed with summary processes, instead of cheating the negro and the loyal whites with airy nothings called a "provisional government" or "martial law," things which have just enough substance to irritate, and not enough to afford the smallest protection either for life, or limb, or property. Mr. Bingham made a strong and able protest against the farce, but in vain.

Repudiation may be said to have received a *coup de grace*, during the week, by the passage, on General Garfield's motion, of a resolution condemning it in every shape and for all possible reasons, the occasion which called for the motion being some wild talk in favor of a national swindling by Mr. Mungen, of Ohio. All the Democrats present voted for the motion, some supporting it in strong language. The Philadelphia *Age* calls attention to the fact that the Democratic members voted in a body for a somewhat similar resolution in 1865, and seeks thereby to show that repudiation has never been a Democratic doctrine. It is quite true that in 1865 there was no talk or thought of cheating the public creditor; the movement began in 1866, the originator being Mr. Andrew Johnson, and the Democratic press very generally joined in, all over the country, not exactly in demanding, that the debt should not be paid, but in calling for its payment in greenbacks, and urging fresh issues of greenbacks for the purpose, or in holding up the bondholders to public odium as usurers, bloated aristocrats, blood-suckers, and so forth—which was neither more nor less than preparing the way for repudiation. Indeed, the best thing they can say for themselves is, that the Republican party

tolerated in its own ranks talk fully as bad in quality, and more mischievous because coming from Republicans, as any which came from Democrats. But, then, the gist of the whole matter is, that certain politicians on both sides did what politicians are everlastingly doing—underestimated the popular virtue.

Our old friend, Mr. J. M. Ashley, has been removed at last. We felt satisfied, since we heard of his declaration of his willingness to "bow to the popular will" in the Territory on the subject of a white man's government, that trouble was in store for him, and that this would damage him, as his corrupt partnership with Case, as revealed in his correspondence, did not do. Indeed, the Case correspondence does not seem to have damaged him at all, or very little. Leading Republican Senators canvassed and voted for him, and everybody he asked signed his recommendation. The President, we believe, knew little about him. Since his removal, some difficulty in the way of his successor, General Potts, of Ohio, taking his place, makes it not improbable that he may be allowed to linger a little longer, but we presume his doom is sealed. If General Grant will now bring home Daniel E. Sickles, he will have removed the two great blots on his Administration. If Senators will stand firm against Sickles's confirmation, we feel satisfied they will receive the hearty commendation of all that is best in the Republican party.

The President's nominations for the new circuit judgeships have been in the main very good, but one of them, that of Mr. George H. Yeaman, a Kentuckian, now minister to Copenhagen, who would have made an excellent judge, has been withdrawn, and that of Mr. Withers, of Michigan, substituted. The cause of Mr. Yeaman's failure was the disinterment of certain speeches of his in 1862-'63 against the exercise of the war power, and especially the exercise of it for the emancipation of slaves. His "war record," for a Kentuckian, we believe, was excellent, and his rejection is simply an additional and striking illustration of the tenacity with which the North laid hold of the anti-slavery idea when once it had been brought to see that it was the fundamental idea of the struggle. Mr. Hoar, the Attorney-General, has been nominated for one of the vacancies on the supreme bench, and Mr. Edwin M. Stanton the other, caused by the resignation of Judge Grier. Mr. Stanton, who probably has as little of the judicial temper as any man who ever mounted the bench, has been at once confirmed without the customary reference, and by a large majority—46 to 11—by way of recognizing and rewarding his services during the war, in which he sacrificed both health and fortune. The nomination of Mr. Hoar, on the other hand, hangs fire, owing to his personal unpopularity with Senators, and it is curious to watch how the newspaper correspondents catch the senatorial tone and telegraph "little digs" at him to their respective journals. The causes of this unpopularity are his want of familiarity with, and what is of more importance, patience with, the ways of politicians; his undisguised contempt for "claims," and his tendency to stick pins into wind-bags. Considering his reputation as a judge and his high character, the hesitation of the Senate over his nomination is a curious piece of childishness. The country would, however, gain for the present by his total rejection, as he makes a rare Attorney-General, and helps to supply the Cabinet with that foundation of all statesmanship—good sense.

There is trouble between the Administration and the Senate about the new Judges, the Judiciary Committee making the extraordinary request that the President should furnish them not only with the letters of recommendation of the persons he had nominated, but of those he had rejected. This he declines to do, and there appears to be enough tartness of feeling existing on both sides to make it desirable that the quarrel should stop here. The Senate got into bad habits during the Johnson administration, which, it is to be hoped, it will try to lay aside. Its performances over Mr. Hoar give evidence of a very undignified state of mind.

There has been a good deal of magnanimous eloquence expended over Mr. Fessenden's memory by some of his old political adversaries,

from which it appears that he was as pure and upright a man, and as sound a lawyer and politician, as the country has ever had. This is all true; but it was just as true last spring during the impeachment trial, when hundreds of curs were barking at his heels, and he was as nearly overwhelmed by insult and vile insinuation as such a man could be. That was the time, therefore, for a political adversary, who knew his worth and integrity, to have got up and said at least some of what was said in the Senate last week. Uttered then, it would have honored the speaker, and consoled and supported a brave and faithful public servant in the discharge of his sworn duty, and saved the party from some disgrace. Uttered now, though of course creditable and decent, it has somewhat of the character of an empty form. We mention it by way of preparation for the next attempt to hunt some honest man into baseness.

We think we see some symptoms of shame on the part of the people of Indiana with regard to the state of their divorce laws, and we hope there are signs of the same thing—though as yet we fail to see them—on the part of the Indiana bar with regard to the mode in which they are administered. The *ex parte* account of the McFarland case lately furnished to the *Cincinnati Commercial* has called forth replies from some of the Indiana papers, from which it appears that the copies of the *Martinsville Gazette* in which the editor swore the notice to McFarland was published, do not appear on any existing files of that widely-circulated paper; and one journal says that its belief is that the practice was resorted to in this case which has been not uncommon in similar cases, of publishing an extra edition of three or four copies, which, and none others, contained the notice—the plaintiff's attorney paying the cost. A more ingenious contrivance for debauching the bench, the bar, the press, and society at large than is to be found in Indiana legislation on this question, a civilized community has not often hit on. People are, however, beginning to ask themselves in every direction how much longer we ought to go on with the property and morals of one nation exposed to the conflicting action of thirty-seven different laws of marriage and divorce.

The Spanish gun-boats have sailed, amidst fierce protests from the Cuban partisans and the showers of stones and other missiles from a mob which collected on the wharf, and had to be held in check by a detachment of marines. Accounts from Cuba, too, represent Grant's message and the release of the gun-boats, combined with the cool weather and improved health of the Spanish troops, as having a very depressing effect on the fortunes of the insurgents, who have recently been driven from at least one entrenched position—but who suffered most in the encounter, it would take a seer to say. At Washington, the Cuban interest is decidedly on the decline, Cuban bonds being rather too plentiful, and the Cuban lobby importunate enough to bore even Congressmen, who are probably better used to bores than any other class of created beings.

Mr. Wells's report is out, but we regret to say reaches us too late for extended notice this week. It is longer, we believe, and more elaborate, and takes stronger ground against the tariff than any of his preceding reports, the evidence on the subject of course accumulating with each revolving year. He makes at the opening the startling statement, or perhaps we should rather say understatement, that the war cost the country nine thousand million dollars, to say nothing of the lives expended. Those who remember the period before the war, when the value of the slaves, about two hundred million dollars, was mentioned as sufficient to cover with ridicule the proposal to emancipate them by purchase from their owners, will read Mr. Wells's report with a deeper sense than ever of the mystery of the future and the feebleness of human foresight. Mr. Wells, while drawing a gloomy future of the material progress of the country, gives a very doleful account of the manner in which its wealth is distributed amongst the people, and of the effect of the tariff upon its productive power, and, above all, its effect in excluding American commodities, even grain, from foreign markets. The storm the report will raise against him amongst the high-tariff men

will be tremendous, and there is little doubt a vigorous attempt will be made to prevent the renewal of his office, which expires by limitation in June. We trust Congress, however, will have more sense than to heed it, as Mr. Wells's work is really one of the most valuable results of the war, and is playing a most important part in the economical education of the people.

We believe we have at last come to an understanding of the nature and objects of the "Woman's Parliament." It has been formally organized in this city, with Mrs. Peirce, of Cambridge, as its president, within the last week, the earlier movement on which we commented having been merely preliminary, and the "Woman's Councils" and other gatherings which have intervened having been mere meetings for desultory debate. The word "parliament," we understand, does not contain the germ of any pretensions to the character of a legislature, but is used in the primitive and literal sense of a conference, or council, for discussion. The body has nothing to do with the suffrage movement, of which, indeed, it speaks disrespectfully, holding that until women are able to maintain their ground with men in all walks of life the ballot will be of no use to them, and that, in order to hold their own, they need to be trained to work of all sorts, to learn the art of transacting business, and of managing their own affairs without male help. It proposes, therefore, to occupy itself with such questions as women's education, work, wages, dress, amusements, health, clothing, vices, temptations, legal disabilities, and so forth—a tremendous programme, but full of interest. "Harmonies" and "affinities" it refuses to discuss, and refuses to say what particular act of Congress will, in its opinion, finally establish the reign of truth, justice, and purity on earth, and drive the male rascals into the great alkaline desert.

If we may be allowed a word of criticism, however, we will say that we think the Parliament is in error in refusing to discuss female suffrage, or advocate it at all. The subject is now engaging the attention of great numbers of persons, and there is an immense deal to be said for it, and it is suffering grievously, as it seems to us, from the rant of some of its supporters. They are beginning to indulge in extravagant prophecies about the result of female voting, to believe which one would have to believe first of all either that women are angels already, or that the ballot would make angels of them; and the consequence is, that great numbers of sensible men and women refuse to listen any longer, and begin to treat the whole subject with contempt. Now, if the "Parliament" be composed of women who are able to keep their heads cool while talking of woman's condition, they would do well to discuss her political rights among other things, and give sober consideration to the question of her probable influence on politics, or, rather, to the probable influence of her sex on her political action.

A controversy, marked by a good deal of bitterness, has been raging during the week between Benjamin F. Butler and Horace Greeley. It arose out of a personal appeal—one of a kind which Mr. Greeley now frequently makes in the columns of the *Tribune*—to General Butler to throw his weight into the scales in favor of a general amnesty for the South. One remark of Mr. Greeley's, at the very outset, that though he heard many things said against General Butler, he never heard him accused of being a fool—being a covert insinuation that the General's reputation was that of a knave—satisfied us that the discussion would be marked by great ferocity; and we were not mistaken. It took at once, in General Butler's hands, the shape of a comparison between the amount of popular confidence enjoyed by each disputant, and in this the member for the Fifth District achieved an easy victory, as he had been returned to Congress in spite of his peculiar financial views and the opposition of an able Republican, while Mr. Greeley, in his late attempt to achieve similar distinction, had run behind his ticket in the best Republican districts, and only received a handsome vote in the wards most notorious for electoral frauds in this city; the conclusion was, therefore, that Mr. Greeley's opinions on this subject were not worth listening to. We are bound to say, however, that in

history and moral philosophy Mr. Greeley beats his opponent all to nothing, and would stand on a very lofty moral eminence if it were not for a cutting allusion to Jeff. Davis having been the General's favorite candidate for the Presidency in 1860, which, of course, brought him down at once to the Butler level, and will probably lead to bloody reprisals within the next few days.

The effect of the Emperor's speech at the opening of the Chambers does not seem to have been very favorable. Emile Girardin reports in the *Liberté* that he had asked all his Liberal friends what they thought of it, and the only thing in which they agreed was in considering it "incoherent." He calls attention to one phrase in it—"As to order, I will answer for that"—which was also used by President Louis Napoleon, in a speech on a similar occasion, a week before the *coup d'état* in 1851. Some surprise is expressed, too, that the Emperor should have ventured to rejoice over the abolition of slavery in the United States, seeing that, if his Mexican project had been successful, and the Confederacy through his indirect aid had been established, slavery would not have been abolished. In the meantime, however, the Emperor's health is said to be excellent; and Dr. Ricord is cited as an authority for the statement that his recent illness has done him a deal of good, which will be sad news for "Dr. X," the dissolute physician who used to prophesy his approaching decease in the *Reveil*. The Liberals are preparing for a vigorous campaign in the Corps Législatif—the notices of "interpellation" given by Jules Favre being so radical as to promise even to satisfy Raspail, the aged Red, who is with Rochefort the principal representative of the pure and unadulterated democracy. Moreover, M. Favre has for the first time exercised "the right of initiative," or, in plain English, the right of bringing in bills accorded to the lower house by the late Senatus Consultum, by bringing in one of exceeding brevity, but of exceeding importance, viz.: "The constituent power shall belong henceforth exclusively to the Corps Législatif." The "constituent power" means, in the political phraseology of continental Europe, the power of making or modifying the organic law, which the Emperor now keeps for the Senate and himself, but which Jules Favre and the Liberals insist must be transferred to the representatives of the people. This is, therefore, an attempt to put an end in form as well as in fact to personal government, and strikes so directly at the very roots of the Empire that it is feared by many that, if the Emperor cannot successfully resist it in any other way, he will resist by a *coup d'état*; but he is rather too old for another enterprise of this sort, and, what is of more consequence, the men who made the last one successful have vanished, and there is nobody to take their places. They were lucky dogs, for the France out of which they made their fortunes exists no longer.

There is a good deal of agitation in a small way in Europe over the ferocious attitude taken up by the Sultan towards the Khedive—the former calling on the latter to cease contracting foreign loans, lay down his fleet, and submit himself to the imperial grace, or be deposed, and Mustapha Fazyl Pasha put in his place. The Turk is said to be greatly set up by the success of his late loan, and considerably chagrined by the *éclat* which his vassal has derived from the opening of the Suez Canal, and is, consequently, not sorry to have somebody to kick, just to show the world that there is still some of the old fire left in him. The European press generally treat his course as rank folly; some feel satisfied, and with reason, that the quarrel will come to nothing, as France and England will interfere to keep the peace; while others recommend that a ring be formed, and the parties left to fight it out. What does more to make the Sultan's course seem ridiculous is, as we mentioned some weeks ago, the strong probability that he would get the worst of it if he came to blows, the Egyptian troops being able to give a good account of three times their number of Turks. If nobody interfered, too, the war would hardly be confined to the Turks and Egyptians; Greeks and Bulgarians would lend a hand, and the Levant would become a scene of such strife as has not been witnessed for a long while—which makes it probable that somebody *will* interfere, even if the Sultan does not grow wiser.

MR. TRUMBULL'S SUPREME COURT BILL.

PERHAPS the strongest argument for Mr. Trumbull's bill cutting off the right of appeal to the Supreme Court in certain cases, and obliging the court to derive from Congress its official knowledge of political facts, is to be found in the question, What should Congress have done if the Supreme Court had declared the war unconstitutional by denying the right of the Federal Government to coerce a State? Of course the answer of ninety-nine men out of every hundred would have been, Disregard it. In other words, people would have said, There are some issues too grave to be submitted, in the present state of human nature, to any legal tribunal, which never have been and probably never will be submitted to any legal tribunal; and one of them is the right of twenty millions of people to exist as a nation. This is a question which has never yet been laid before any less arbiter than the Lord of Hosts. There never yet has been a man, and never will be a man, it is safe to say, in the present stage of human development, competent to give judgment on it. The proofs in such a controversy could be carried into no earthly chamber nor comprised within any written or spoken pleading, for they consist in the readiness of vast numbers of men to lay down all that makes life dear, and life itself, in pursuit of an ideal good. When men enough agree to do this to make all material resistance to their will useless, all argument on their right to do it becomes child's play. Nations may yet submit to legal arbitrament questions of more or less, of this meaning or that meaning, of true or false, of honorable or dishonorable; but the question to be or not to be will, it is safe to say, be for ever reserved to the sword.

The right to fight in defence of the national existence would, however, be of little use without the right of deciding when the danger to avert which the fighting was begun is over. Anybody who is authorized to tell us when to lay down our arms might as well also be authorized to tell us when to take them up, because he can with a word render our taking them up vain. In other words, if we conceded to the Supreme Court the right of saying when an insurrection was fully suppressed, we might as well concede to it also the right of saying whether it should be suppressed at all or not. Therefore, that Congress should have charge, and exclusive charge, of the work of reconstruction, is the logical result of its having exclusive charge of the work of putting down the rebellion. The elements which enter into the question whether the rebellion is extinct or only smouldering are of a nature to prevent them being properly placed before any legal tribunal, and to incapacitate any legal tribunal from forming a correct judgment on them.

Having said this much, we may safely add that it is needless to attach any importance to Mr. Trumbull's bill—much less to Mr. Drake's bill depriving the Supreme Court of the power of declaring any Act of Congress unconstitutional—on the ground that something is needed to check the tendency of the Court to usurp power over the co-ordinate branches of the Government, or to assume predominance in the Government. The argument is made still less respectable, too, by the attempts made to fortify it by citations from the prophecies and protests of the democratic fathers. The dangers which these worthies, without any experience to guide them, thought they foresaw, we, with a good deal of experience, perceive that they did not foresee at all. The fear that the court would lord it over Congress and the President has been proved not to have a particle of foundation. Indeed, the judiciary is the branch of the Government, and the only one, which has been steadily declining in influence and authority during the last fifty years. The other two have found means to compensate themselves in one direction for what they lost in another; but whatever the judiciary has lost, it has lost outright. Nearly every tendency of the day has told against the increase of its power, while there is hardly one which has not helped to increase the power of the executive and the legislature. The growth of wealth, combined with the possession by Congress of the public purse, has lessened the influence of the bench by condemning it to poverty and making it less attractive to able lawyers. The increasing influence of numbers on the conduct of public affairs has added enormously to the force of the representative branch of the Government, and proportionably diminished the force of the branch which has no constituency to back it up. In an age

when the number of men who dare to speak their own sentiments as such is greatly diminished, of course judges' opinions count for less than they did in the age when individual statesmen were a political power. Moreover, the prevailing taste for political and moral speculation, the decline of authority, the weakened force of habit, the dislike of walking by landmarks or on beaten tracks, have all tended to bring into dispute the function of comparison and interpretation, which in our jurisprudence is the only one left to the judges. *

It has been shown, too, by actual experience, what one would think might have been predicted *a priori* even by Jefferson, that the revisory power over legislation of a tribunal which can never be called on to pass judgment on the validity of a law at all except on the demand of a suitor in a *bond-fide* controversy, can rarely be a source of danger or even of inconvenience. It is a remarkable fact, too, that, the one occasion on which the court could be fairly charged with attempting to settle a political controversy by a judicial decision, the attempt was made not for the honor and aggrandizement of the court itself, but for the benefit of one of the great political parties of the day; thus revealing its greatest danger, and that which those who legislate about it are bound to give most heed to—the danger of its being used as a tool by a party in power to give a kind of moral sanction to measures not otherwise justifiable.

There are many signs, some of which we mentioned a fortnight ago, that the Supreme Court is recovering from the temporary loss of influence and dignity inflicted on it by the Dred-Scott decision and the events of the war. The general excellence of the President's appointments to the new circuit judgeships, capped by the bestowal of the vacant seats in the Supreme Court itself on Judge Hoar and Mr. Stanton, and the increase of salaries which is now pending in Congress, are all signs of a healthy reaction in the public mind as to the inestimable value of an upright, independent, and honored judiciary. The jurisprudence of a country is neither more nor less than what we may call its morality applied to its affairs, or, in other words, its morality formulated and committed to the custody of men trained to the faithful and efficient discharge of the duty. A people which, emancipated from the rule of authority, is left without a jurisprudence so preserved and extended, and without more exact tests of the value of its resolves than the winds of doctrine blowing from platforms, and debating clubs, and newspapers, may be said to occupy in the moral world a place somewhat analogous to that which nomad tribes occupy in the political world—running from one well or oasis to another, without aims, or aspirations, or progress. The art of judging and the habit of honoring judges are acquisitions which the Anglo-Saxon race only among modern nations can be said to possess; and there is none of its riches it should more carefully cherish. The judge as an independent institution, and not a Government functionary, is something of which other peoples only dream or sing. We have it: let us keep it.

MINORITY REPRESENTATION IN ILLINOIS.

THE people of the State of Illinois are much interested just now in the discussion of Personal, or, as some of them call it, Proportional Representation; and there seems every likelihood that the Constitutional Convention which has just met will take this subject into serious consideration. It is much to be desired that an experiment should be made in good earnest, in at least one branch of the Legislature; and it is equally to be desired that it should be made so judiciously and cautiously as to be a test of the merits of the principle itself, and not merely a trial of some favorite method of applying the principle in practice. A failure now would probably be fatal to all hope of seeing any speedy reform in this important matter; and a failure is quite as likely to be the result of unessential details as of any fault in the principle itself.

There are three plans of Personal Representation which are well known and widely discussed. First, there is Mr. Hare's plan, of allowing each voter to endorse upon his ballot any number of names in the order of his preference, only one of which is to be in any case counted—each person elected to have a fixed quota of votes, and all ballots be-

yond this bearing his name to be counted for other candidates following these endorsements. This most complete and equitable system is tacitly set aside in our discussion as being too complicated for our community.

Second, there is the plan of the New York Personal Representation Society, which pays no regard to quota, recognizes the principle of plurality choice, and gives each member as many votes in the Legislature as he has received at the polls. The third plan is that reported to the United States Senate by Mr. Buckalew, of Pennsylvania, according to which each elector has as many votes as there are members to be chosen, but may *cumulate* them, if he likes, upon one, two, or more candidates. The New York plan is especially designed for a State Legislature, and it is hard to see how it could be conveniently applied to the election of members of Congress; for, even if the rule for suffrage were the same all over the Union, there will always be a disparity among the different States in the proportion of votes to population. Mr. Buckalew's plan is intended especially for Congress; for a State Legislature it would probably be necessary to subdivide the State into two or three sub-districts; indeed, this would seem desirable even for members of Congress in the case of the largest States.

Most of the Chicago papers are advocating a modification of the New York plan, on the ground that this gives a perfectly fair and equal representation of the whole community. The method proposed by the Chicago *Republican* provides for an absolute equality of *members* of the two parties, by dividing the State into districts, each choosing two members, but no elector voting for more than one. Even this would not result in an equality, for in districts where there is an immense preponderance of one party, that party would get both members; and besides, it wholly leaves out of sight the possibility of a *third party*, or the representation of persons who are dissatisfied with both parties. Further, it leaves the inhabitants of each district just as absolutely subject to King Caucus as at present. It answers one purpose—the representation of minorities, that is, of a minority; but the no less needed reform in the representation of the majority it leaves wholly out of sight.

These objections lie to this special plan; but the objections to the general principle followed by the New York Society are no less weighty. It rests upon the theory of delegation, that the representative is to be only a mouthpiece of his constituents—a theory which is no doubt correct in so far as he is chosen upon a special issue, but no further. In not one case of ten do representatives divide upon questions that were distinctly before their constituents when they were elected; and even when this is the case, the question may have shifted in such a way as to appear now in a wholly new light. For instance, the present Congress was chosen on the issue of Reconstruction. The questions of Finance and Civil Service Reform were clearly before the country. Everybody knew that they would be the leading ones before the Congress; yet few persons considered this in their voting, because it was properly felt that the work of Reconstruction was not clinched until it had been approved by a popular verdict, and that that was the work of the hour. So that on this plan the power of members of Congress upon the great questions of to-day would be proportioned to their position upon the dead issues of two years ago.

We do not, therefore, approve of the New York plan, because it is based upon the false principle of delegation of power, and because even this principle it carries out but lamely. When we consider further the complications of the voting in a large legislative assembly, where each member should cast several thousand votes, it is surprising that so impracticable a scheme should meet so much favor. It should at least be modified by cutting off the two right hand figures of each sum, and letting the members vote only the round hundreds.

Another point in which we differ from the Chicago papers is in regard to the district system, the establishment of which is a chief ground of complaint against Mr. Buckalew's plan. Now, this is to us one of the best features in his plan. What do we want of these cumbersome, artificial, electoral districts, when we already have towns and counties? We agree that it is desirable to pay some regard to locality, and have no objection to districts large enough for each to choose half a dozen members or more, provided these are not chosen exclusively

by the majority; but it is in these petty districts, where local politicians and local interests reign supreme, that half the mischief of the present order of things lies. Adopt the New York plan, with the modification suggested above, but with its original feature of *no districts*; let the votes be untrammeled by "shrieks of locality," and cast their ballots for the best man, wherever he may happen to live, and we may be sure that the best men in the various sections of the State will be recognized and gladly chosen by their neighbors.

The Chicago *Times*, indeed, while joining its Republican neighbors in favoring the reform in question, inclines to advocate Mr. Buckalew's plan, and at any rate avoids schemes so impracticable as that before described. It makes, for instance, the very judicious suggestion that if districts be retained at all, they be identical with the counties—the number of members to vary with the population of the county, and the voting to be done either by cumulation or by limiting the vote of each elector, so that the minority might be sure of at least one member in all counties where more than one was chosen.

The New York plan, if modified as suggested above, by confining the votes of the members to the round hundreds, and further restricting this method of voting to questions where the ayes and noes are called, might work well—although even then it would give unrivalled opportunities for filibustering. But it would, we confess, have one advantage over Mr. Buckalew's plan, as well as over the plan that we ourselves proposed two years ago: that no disadvantage would reside in the disparity of votes received by different candidates. Our proposition was like Mr. Buckalew's, except that it did not allow the cumulating of votes—each elector was to cast only one, and a plurality would elect; both plans would leave it as a healthy and legitimate work for party organization so to district and control their parties in the several sections as to prevent much waste of votes. At any rate, the difference in the number of votes received by different members would not be any greater than at present, and either plan would allow electors to scratch a bad nomination without voting against disparity.

One thing we wish to insist upon again. It is not wholly in the interests of the minority, that is, of any specific minority, that we favor this principle, but quite as much for the protection of the majority itself, and the elevation of the character of legislative bodies. This object can be reached only by destroying the excessive power of the Caucus, and for this we believe any of these plans—except that criticised above—would be efficient. The people of the whole Union are looking hopefully to Illinois, and it would be worthy of this noble State to inaugurate a reform from which so much good may result. We trust that no difference of opinion on unessential details will prevent honest men of different parties who are laboring for great public ends from agreeing upon some method, which, if not theoretically perfect, will ensure at least a measure of reform.

THE SITUATION IN IRELAND.

THE Irish difficulty may be said, during the last few weeks, to have entered on a new and extraordinary phase, plunging the Gladstone ministry into a sea of trouble, of which no man can see the end. The disestablishment of the Irish Church was an excellent measure in all respects but one. It came at a most unfortunate time; it were better done sooner or done later; that is, if an act of justice ever admits of postponement. It resembled every preceding English concession to Ireland in being apparently the result of intimidation. The arguments against the maintenance of the Irish Church were as strong in 1865 as they were in 1868, yet anybody who talked of its abolition in the former year was set down as an impracticable visionary, while those who proposed it in the latter year were hailed as enlightened statesmen. Now the only thing which had occurred in this brief interval to bring about this sudden change in English sentiment was the discovery that the close of the war in the United States had left a large body of Irish military adventurers without employment, and with more or less military skill and experience; that they had succeeded in organizing an immense association on American soil, and raising large sums of money for the avowed object of stirring up rebellion in Ireland and making armed attacks on British territory, and that the American public had been so irritated by the course of the

English Government during the war as to be disposed to wink at and even encourage Fenian enterprises; nay, that it was not impossible that the weight of the Irish element in American politics might precipitate a bloody solution of the *Alabama* difficulty. Moreover, the nature of the Fenian operations in both England and Ireland was such as to spread terror through society. The leaders were apparently troubled with no scruples, and were faithfully served by adherents who swarmed in every English town. If ever there was a moment when the ordinary rules of the lower worldly prudence prescribed standing firm and yielding nothing, it was the moment when Mr. Gladstone proposed the surrender of the church. And yet the moral situation was one from which there was no other possible outlet.

The natural result followed. The English liberals have received no credit whatever for having undergone any intellectual conversion, or made any moral advance as to the mode of dealing with Ireland. There is probably not an Irish Catholic who does not ascribe the change of policy to pure, unadulterated fear; and the minute the land question was mentioned as the one next to be dealt with, the Fenians set to work to apply the stimuli they found, or thought they found, so successful in the case of the church. Not that the Fenians proper desired or enjoyed the settlement of the church question, or take any interest in the land question, either. They are probably perfectly sincere in saying that nothing but total independence will satisfy them. But the result in the case of the church has enabled them to convince those who do not belong to their ranks that peaceful agitation, or "moral force," in which O'Connell had taught them to place a certain reliance, was of no value whatever, and that Fenian tactics were the only ones to force from England quick and ample concessions—whether the object in view was religious equality, or tenant right, or total independence, mattered not.

Accordingly, Fenians, or people of a Fenian turn, now have it all their own way. There is no longer much taste for discussions of the land question, and, indeed, as far as the Irish are concerned, little or no discussion. That is carried on in the main by Englishmen, and at all events in the English papers, and the only Irishmen who take part in it are landlords or men of the landlord class. The tenants "help along the cause," as our agitators say, by killing landlords, robbing houses of arms, and serving notices of an early death on persons interfering with actual possessors of farms. They no longer, as a priest remarked, the other day, in a speech in Waterford, take the trouble to form organizations for the commission of outrages; each individual, when he finds himself in the vein for it, without communicating his purpose to anybody, "takes his revolver and tumbles his landlord" without more ado. Nobody sees him, or, if anybody does, he knows better than to swear against him, and juries know better than to convict him.

Along with the demand for the settlement of the land question came a demand for an amnesty for the Fenian prisoners convicted last year. If the Fenians had believed the government to be strong or brave, an amnesty would have been possible. In the presence, however, of the popular impression of its state of mind, Mr. Gladstone felt, and he was confirmed in his opinion by the representations of Irish property holders, that an amnesty at that juncture would result almost in a break-up of the social organization, and deadly peril for every landholder, if not for the entire Protestant population. He accordingly refused. One of the convicted Fenians, O'Donovan Rossa, a man apparently of very violent temper and great bodily strength, continued, during his confinement, to testify against British rule by hostile operations against his keepers. Four or five powerful men were found necessary to remove him from one cell to another, and one of his morning salutations to the warden was the emptying of his slop bucket in that functionary's face. This policy of his so delighted his friends out of doors that they nominated him as a candidate for the representation of the county of Tipperary in Parliament, in opposition to a thoroughgoing Liberal barrister, Mr. Heron, who had the hearty support of the priests; and such was the terror they inspired that, out of a registered constituency of nearly 10,000, only about 2500 went to the polls, and Rossa was elected by a little over 1200 votes, his supporters, of course, knowing well that as a convicted felon he cannot

serve, and being apparently impelled into voting for him, partly as a defiance to the government, and partly for what they would call the "divilmint" of the thing. Moreover, the priests who supported Mr. Heron had to have a guard of police on their way home, to protect them from a thrashing at the hands of enraged Christians of their own flocks. In like manner, a meeting in Dundalk, presided over by a Catholic nobleman, and taking what may be fairly called extreme ground in favor of fixity of tenure, has been broken up by a furious mob, who refused to allow of any speaking, and, as far as could be ascertained, were opposed to any settlement of the land question which did not include a house and an acre of land in fee simple for every laborer.

In another district a Fenian or Ribbon lodge or committee is issuing orders of a peculiarly restrictive character; one, for instance, forbidding the Catholics, on pain of death, to have their corn ground by a certain Protestant miller. And the spirit of disorder and defiance to the law is spreading everywhere. Juries have had to be escorted from the court-houses; an old man of seventy has been shot down at the plough, in a cool and deliberate manner, for serving a notice on a tenant; and landlords are "tumbled" a few yards from their houses, while taking a morning walk, much in the fashion in which Mr. Pumphrey describes the Apaches as settling their differences in Arizona with the employés of the mining companies. The military force on the island now amounts to 24,000 men, and Mr. Gladstone is said to talk of calling Parliament together to suspend the *Habeas Corpus Act*.

The result is, that the Irish land question—one of the most complicated and delicate ever submitted to a legislature, and which bears not only upon landed property in England, but, it may be said, on all property—instead of being settled by calm discussion, and after a patient hearing of all parties and interests, will probably find a solution in the midst of the wildest excitement and exasperation, which will satisfy nobody after it has been reached, and ten chances to one will not be final. There is in the agitation, as far as it has yet gone, abundant evidence of the truth of what we have frequently said in these columns, and the English press now begins to acknowledge—that European radicalism, of which Fenianism is only a branch modified by more or less reverence for the church which Continental radicals do not feel, no longer stops short at the assertion of political equality. Property itself is now up for question, and will, if it is to stand, have to go through an ordeal such as it has never before been exposed to. A more striking illustration, too, than the state of things in Ireland affords of the folly of what is called "tardy justice"—that is, of denying people what on general principles they are entitled to, in the hope that they will at last give up calling for it—and of the imminent danger to which crass-headed conservatives of our day are exposing the great rule of prescription which plays so important a part in modern society, by trying to make it a cover for flagrant abuses of all sorts, it would be difficult to produce.

THE TALE OF THE "RIPE SCHOLAR."

NOT many years ago, a certain traditional prestige, independent of all considerations of practical utility, attached to the scholastic character, at least in New England, where the clergy long held a monopoly of what passed for learning. New England colleges were once little more than schools for making ministers. As the clergyman has lost in influence, so the scholar has lost in repute, and the reasons are not hard to find. The really good scholars were exceptions, and very rare ones. In the matter of theology some notable results were produced, but secular scholarship was simply an exotic and a sickly one. It never recovered from its transplantation and drew no vital juices from the soil. The climate was hostile to it. All the vigor of the country drifted into practical pursuits, and the New England man of letters, when he happened not to be a minister, was usually some person whom constitutional defects, bodily or mental, had unfitted for politics or business. He was apt to be a recluse, ignorant of the world, bleached by a close room and an iron stove, never breathing the outer air when he could help it, and resembling a medieval monk in his scorn of the body, or rather in his utter disregard of it. Sometimes he was reputed a scholar merely because he was nothing else. The products of his mind were as pallid as the hue of his face, and, like their parent, void of blood, bone, sinew, muscle, and marrow. That he should

be provincial was, for a long time, inevitable, but that he was emasculate was chiefly his own fault. As his scholarship was not fruitful of any very valuable results, as it did not make itself felt in the living world that ranged around it, as, in short, it showed no vital force, it began at length to be regarded as a superfluous excrescence. Nevertheless, like the monkish learning of the middle ages, it served a good purpose in keeping alive the tradition of liberal culture against a future renaissance. We shall be told that we exaggerate, and, in one sense, this is true, for we describe not an individual, but a type, from which, however, the reality was rarely very remote, and with which it was sometimes identified. The most finished and altogether favorable example of this vitalized scholarship, with many graceful additions, was Edward Everett, and its echoes may still be heard in the halls of Congress, perplexing Western members with Latin quotations, profuse, if not always correct.

As the nation grew in importance and in sensitiveness, the want of intellectual productiveness began to trouble the popular pride, and an impatient public called on its authors to be "original." Spasmodic efforts were made to respond, and the results were such as may be supposed. The mountain went into convulsions of labor and produced a mouse, of something as ridiculous. After an analogous fashion some of the successors of our pallid, clerical scholars raise the cry, "Let us be strong," and fall into the moral and physical gymnastics of muscular Christianity. This, certainly, is no bad sign, in so far as it indicates the consciousness of a want; but neither originality nor force can be got up to order. They must spring from a deeper root and grow by laws of their own. Happily our soil has begun to put forth such a growth, promising in quality, but as yet, in quantity and in maturity, wholly inadequate to the exigent need.

In times of agitation, alive with engrossing questions of pressing moment, when all is astir with pursuit and controversy, when some are mad for gold, and some are earnest and some rabid for this cause or for that, the scholarship of the past is naturally pronounced not up with the times. Despite his manifold failings, "the self-made man," with his palatial mansion, his exploits in the gold-room, in the caucus, on the stump, in Congress, and in the presidential chair, flatters popular self-love and fills the public eye. Only a slight reason is wanted for depreciating the scholar, and a strong one is offered. Because the culture which our colleges supplied, and which too many of them still supply, was weak, thin, and unsuitable, it was easy to depreciate all culture. By culture we mean development, not polish or adornment, though these are its natural and by no means useless belongings. Using the word, then, in this sense, culture is with us a supreme necessity, not for the profit of a few but of all. The presence of minds highly and vigorously developed is the most powerful aid to popular education, and the necessary condition of its best success. In a country where the ruling power is public opinion, it is above all things necessary that the best and maturest thought should have a fair share in forming it. Such thought cannot exist in any force in the community without propagating its own image, and a class of strong thinkers is the palladium of democracy. They are the natural enemies of ignorant, ostentatious, and aggressive wealth, and the natural friends of all that is best in the popular heart. They are sure of the hatred of charlatans, demagogues, and political sharpers. They are the only hope of our civilization; without them it is a failure, a mere platitude of mediocrity, stagnant or turbid, as the case may be. The vastest aggregate of average intelligences can do nothing to supply their place, and even material growth is impeded by an ignorance of its conditions and laws. If we may be forgiven the metaphor, our civilization is at present a creature with a small and feeble head, a large, muscular, and active body, and a tail growing at such a rate that it threatens to become unmanageable and shake the balance of the vital powers.

The tendency of a partial education, such as the best popular education must of necessity be, is to produce an excess of self-confidence; and one of its results in this country is a prodigious number of persons who think, and persuade others to think, that they know everything necessary to be known, and are fully competent to form opinions and make speeches upon all questions whatever. As these are precisely the persons who make the most noise on the most momentous questions of the day, who have the most listeners and admirers, and who hold each other up as shining examples for imitation, their incompetency becomes a public evil of the first magnitude. If rash and ignorant theorizing, impulsive outcries, and social and political charlatany of all sorts are to have the guiding of our craft, then farewell to the hope that her voyage will be a success. The remedy is to infuse into the disordered system the sedative and tonic of a broad knowledge and a vigorous reason. This means to invigorate and

extend the higher education; to substitute for the effete and futile scholasticism which the popular mind justly holds in slight account, an energetic and manly development, trained to grapple with the vast questions of the present, and strong enough in numbers as well as quality to temper with its mature thought the rashness of popular speculation. Our best colleges are moving hopefully in this direction; none of them with more life and vigor than the oldest of them all. The present generation will see an increase in the number of our really efficient thinkers, but it is a positive, not a relative increase, and is far behind the fast increasing need. Powerful causes are at work against it, and we will try to explain what, to our thinking, some of these causes are.

Perhaps the most obvious of them is the ascendancy of material interests among us. To the great mass of our population, the clearing of lands, the acquiring of new territory, the building of cities, the multiplication of railroads, steamboats, and telegraph lines, the growth of trade and manufactures, the opening of mines, with the resulting fine houses, fine clothes, and sumptuous fare, constitute the real sum and substance of progress and civilization. Art, literature, philosophy, and science—so far as science has no direct bearing on material interests—are regarded as decorations, agreeable and creditable, but not essential. In other words, the material basis of civilization is accepted for the entire structure. A prodigious number of persons think that money-making is the only serious business of life, and there is no corresponding number who hold a different faith. There are not a few among us who would "improve" our colleges into schools of technology, where young men may be trained with a view mainly to the production of more steamboats, railroads, and telegraphs; more bread-stuffs; more iron, copper, silver, and gold; more cottons and woollens; and, consequently, more fine houses and fine clothes. All this is very well, but it does not answer the great and crying need of the time. The truth is, our material growth so greatly exceeds our other growth that the body politic suffers from diseases of repletion. A patient bloated with generous living, and marked already with the eruptions of a perverted, diseased blood, is not to be cured solely by providing him with more food.

The drift towards material activity is so powerful among us that it is very difficult for a young man to resist it; and the difficulty increases in proportion as his nature is active and energetic. Patient and devoted study is rarely long continued in the vortex of American life. The dusty arena of competition and strife has fascinations almost irresistible to one conscious of his own vigor. Intellectual tastes may, however, make a compromise. Journalism and the lecture-room offer them a field midway between the solitude of the study and the bustle of the world of business; but the journal and the lecture-room have influences powerfully adverse to solid, mature, and independent thinking. There, too, is the pulpit, for those who have a vocation that way; but in this, also, a mighty and increasing temptation besets the conscientious student. As for politics, they have fallen to such a pass that the men are rare who can mingle in them without deteriorating.

Paradoxical as it may seem, the diffusion of education and intelligence is at present acting against the free development of the highest education and intelligence. Many have hoped and still hope that by giving a partial teaching to great numbers of persons, a stimulus would be applied to the best minds among them, and a thirst for knowledge awakened which would lead to high results; but thus far these results have not equalled the expectation. There has been a vast expenditure of brick and mortar for educational purposes, and, what is more to the purpose, many excellent and faithful teachers of both sexes have labored diligently in their vocation; but the system of competitive cramming in our public schools has not borne fruits on which we have much cause to congratulate ourselves. It has produced an immense number of readers; but what thinkers are to be found may be said to exist in spite of it. The public school has put money in abundance into the pockets of the dealers in sensation stories, sensation illustrated papers, and all the swarm of trivial, sickly, and rascally literature. From this and cheap newspapers thousands—nay, millions—draw all their mental improvement, and pamper their mental stomachs with adulterated, not to say poisoned, sweetmeats, till they have neither desire nor digestion for strong and wholesome food. But we would speak rather of that truly intelligent and respectable public which forms the auditries of popular preachers and popular lecturers, which is the lavish patron of popular periodical literature, which interests itself in the questions of the day, and has keen mental appetites of a certain kind. This public is strong in numbers and very strong in collective wealth. Its voice can confer celebrity, if not reputation; and it can enrich those who win its favor. In truth, it is the American people. Now, what does this

great public want? It is, in the main, busied with the active work of life, and though it thinks a little and feels a great deal on matters which ought to engage the attention of every self-governing people, yet it is impatient of continuous and cool attention to anything but its daily business, and sometimes even to that. Indeed, the exciting events of the last ten years, joined to the morbid stimulus applied to all departments of business, have greatly increased this tendency; and to-day there are fewer serious and thoughtful readers than in the last decade. More than ever before, the public demands elocution rather than reason of those who address it; something to excite the feelings and captivate the fancy rather than something to instruct the understanding. It rejoices in sweeping statements, confident assertions, bright lights and black shadows alternating with something funny. Neither does it care much for a terse, idiomatic, and pointed dictation, but generally prefers the flatulent periods of the ready writers. On matters of the greatest interest it craves to be excited or amused. Lectures professing to instruct are turned to a tissue of jokes, and the pulpit itself is sometimes enlivened after a similar fashion. The pill must be sugared and the food highly seasoned, for the public mind is in a state of laxity and needs a tonic. But the public taste is very exacting, and it offers great and tempting rewards to those who please it.

That which pleases it pays so much better in money and notoriety, and is so much cheaper of production, than the better article which does not please it, that the temptation to accept light work and high wages in place of hard work and low wages is difficult to resist. Nothing but a deep love of truth or of art can stand unmoved against it. In our literary markets, educated tastes are completely outridden by uneducated or half-educated tastes, and the commodity is debased accordingly. Thus, the editor of a magazine may be a man of taste and talents; but his interests as a man of letters and his interests as a man of business are not the same. "Why don't you make your magazine what it ought to be?" we once asked of a well-known editor. "Because," he replied, "if we did, we should lose four-fifths of our circulation." A noted preacher not long ago confessed to us that the temptation to give his audience the sort of preaching which they liked to hear, instead of that which it was best that they should hear, was almost irresistible.

The amount of what we have been saying is, that the public which demands a second-rate article is so enormously large in comparison with the public which demands a first-rate article that it impairs the quality of literary production, and exercises an influence adverse to the growth of intellectual eminence. Now, what is the remedy? It seems to us to be twofold. First, to direct popular education, not to stuff the mind with crude aggregations of imperfect knowledge, but rather to the development of its powers of observation, comparison, analysis, and reasoning; to strengthening and instructing its moral sense, and leading it to self-knowledge and consequent modesty. All this, no doubt, is vastly more difficult and far less showy in its results than the present system of competitive cramming, and requires in its teachers a high degree of good sense and sound instruction. The other remedy consists in a powerful re-enforcement of the higher education, and the consequent development of a class of persons, whether rich or poor, so well instructed and so numerous as to hold their ground against charlatany, and propagate sound and healthy thought through the community. He who gives or bequeaths money to a well-established and wisely-conducted university confers a blessing which radiates through all the ranks of society. He does a service eminently practical, and constitutes himself the patron of the highest and best utilitarianism.

ENGLAND—THE TWELVE DAYS' MISSION.

LONDON, December 3, 1869.

I HAD the curiosity, a few days ago, to pay a visit to one of the churches devoted to the "twelve days' mission," or, as some people called it, the "combined assault upon Satan." If, as I presume, others somewhat similar to that which I witnessed have been enacted in some seventy other churches in London, the phenomenon is certainly remarkable. How much Satan may be the worse for it, I will not presume to say; nor even, which is a very different thing, how much the Church of England may be the better. But certainly it is an indication of remarkable changes, upon the value of which every one may pronounce for himself. What I saw was a most gorgeously decorated church, in which an attempt seems to have been made to gain beauty by sheer lavishness of expenditure; a ceremonial indistinguishable from that of the Roman Catholic; and a crowded and attentive audience. My visits to churches of this kind are rare, and I am always struck by the rate of their progress during my absence. The men

who were the leaders of the party some five or six years ago are already falling into the rear. Ceremonies which would then have been startling are now commonplace, and those who were then esteemed daring innovators seem to have sunk into old fogies. How much further things can go, I know not; but they cannot be long in reaching the furthest conceivable limits. What I heard was perhaps more remarkable than what I saw. I had been attracted to the church by a glowing description in the *Times* of the preacher's eloquence, and of the tears and sobs which burst from his audience. So far I was completely disappointed. The preacher belonged to the commonplace order of orators, which fancies that eloquence consists in roaring loud enough, and gesticulating with sufficient emphasis. He unluckily took the too common line of assaulting the conventional infidel; the infidel does not go to church, and when he does is little likely to be impressed by imperfect recollection of scholastic treatises basted with a great deal of aimless rhetoric. I saw no tears and no emotion, except that caused by the length of the sermon.

Yet it was, as I have said, a singular performance. In the first place, it is curious to see the extreme high-church party imitating the tactics of dissenters, and trying the ranting style of rhetoric, which they are so apt to despise in dissenting preachers. But the difference of ends is as marked as the similarity of means. The object of the dissenter is to produce that spiritual crisis which he calls conversion. The object of the high-churchman is to bring the sinner on his knees to the church, and especially to induce him to submit to confession. The Articles of the Church of England impose certain difficulties upon the open announcement that confession and absolution are to be adopted by its clergy in the same sense as by Roman Catholic priests. It has, however, been proved very frequently that articles and theological tests generally are of a singularly elastic nature, when they are systematically handled in the view to straining them to their utmost limits. At any rate, it is apparent that the great object of the ritualistic clergy in this revival is to extend the practice of confession. A great deal has been said in the papers about the duty of welcoming any party who will stir up our sense of religion, and the supposed success of the revival in attracting congregations of workingmen has been stated as an unanswerable reason for demanding our sympathies. I have some doubts as to the facts. The congregation which I saw was of the eminently respectable kind which might have been seen any time these fifty years in any London church. I believe, however, that there have been cases where churches have been filled with a really poor congregation. Every effort has been made to attract such persons. Processions have in some cases passed through the streets; there has been out-of-door preaching, and grand dramatic scenes have been got up. A congregation is collected to renew, as it is called, their baptismal vows; every man lights a taper whilst he repeats the words given out by the priest, and the whole body then perambulate the church in solemn procession; afterwards the candles are blown out, and they are recommended to take home the ends carefully and preserve them in memory of the day. Curiosity naturally attracts some even of the poorer classes to places where such sights are to be seen; and many of them receive a more permanent impression from the eloquence and undeniable earnestness of many of the preachers.

I do not, however, quite think with a very ecstatic gentleman in one of the church papers, that the result proved that the Church of England can solve the problem of democracy—whatever that problem may precisely be. Perhaps, on a liberal calculation, one man out of a thousand of the London poor has been attracted inside the church doors and been more or less impressed for the time. So far it may very likely be that good has been done. If two or three thousand men are induced to go to church occasionally instead of the public-house, they are, *pro tanto*, more civilized beings. If, however, this is to be done at the price of entirely altering the whole spirit of the Church of England, it may be doubted whether the transitory effect is to be compared in importance with the permanent result. It is difficult to say what would be the effect upon the country if the clergy, as a body, undergo so enormous a revolution as would be implied in their systematically practising confession. That is the point at which the most energetic and active party in the church are seeking to arrive. Although I am bound to add that their noise is, in my opinion, more than proportional to their real power, and that there is not only a strong low-church and a respectable broad-church party in the church, but also a vast mass of humdrum commonplace clergymen upon whose stolid indifference no new-fangled zeal makes much impression; yet the greatest ardor, if not the largest share of brains, in the church is plainly in the ritualist party, and from that con-

sideration the consequences of some of their present efforts may have important results. Meanwhile, the symptoms of a precisely opposite kind are neither few nor doubtful. The most respectable and least daring members of the liberal party at Cambridge have held a meeting, at which they agreed to demand from Government a far more decisive measure than has hitherto been thought possible for the removal of all religious tests from the universities. One cause prompting to this action, although it is not openly avowed, is the rapidly increasing number of distinguished young graduates who refuse to take the tests, and in some instances have resigned the posts for which they had previously had to sign declarations of conformity to the Church of England. It is becoming clear that before long there will be an almost total divorce between the church and the universities. At the other end of the scale, the hold of the clergy upon education is equally threatened. The education league, which proposes a system of compulsory secular education, is a very powerful body, and is apparently likely to get the command of public opinion, although it is proper and usual to say that all these measures are really meant in favor of the church, and intended to relieve it from State bondage. I observe that people who are farthest removed from orthodoxy generally advocate them most strenuously; and I think it cannot be denied that along with the rapid growth of the ritualist party there is an equally rapid growth in the direction of strong hostility to all theological parties.

I may just notice the fact that the Archbishop of York has actually succeeded so far in a legal process for turning out a heretic. As a rule, every attempt to expel anybody is apt to fail in the courts of law; and we have such contrasts as Drs. Colenso, Pusey, and Temple, all in one church. Mr. Voysey, however, has at last found out how to commit a really punishable heresy. He has said very frequently and with great emphasis, that the doctrines of the atonement, of the incarnation, and others, as ordinarily understood, are not only wrong but horribly blasphemous; further, that though he does not deny the truth of the doctrines in some sense or other, he denies, and has a right to deny, any sense that anybody has ever put upon them; and, finally, that much of the Bible is false and immoral, and that in particular St. John's Gospel is so bad in its immorality and inaccuracy that it cannot be genuine. For these opinions he has been suspended from his vicarage, subject to a further appeal; but then Mr. Voysey has been rather plain-spoken. Other people can reconcile their opinions and their preferments with more skill.

The election of a Fenian convict to represent Tipperary is a very serious matter. The English papers generally seem to be in much perplexity as to the proper view to take of it. Various excuses are made, of the validity of which I am unable to judge; but it certainly seems to imply that the disaffection in Ireland is deeper and more determined than is at all pleasant to contemplate.

Correspondence.

WOMAN'S WORK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Preceding Herbert Spencer's very good chapter on the rights of children is one on the rights of women, upon which I doubt not you have bestowed the attention of which it is worthy. I would urge all mothers who still take care of their children, and all fathers who care for them and for future civilization, to read carefully Spencer's admirable little book on education, from which one can learn much both of the rights of children and of the duties of parents.

While I think that it is more important at this time to devise * some way by which those who are now entitled to vote may be enabled to vote with some effect, and really be represented, than to extend to the other sex our crude form of voting, it seems to me that your article in the *Nation* of December 9, entitled "The Rights of Children," does not sufficiently allow for two important facts in the woman question. First, hundreds of thousands of women are now pursuing avocations that take ten hours or more a day of continuous toil; they are occupied away from home, in factories and workshops, in the same way that men are, and they are doing many kinds of work which those who oppose the entire freedom of occupation for women would certainly not consider to be *a priori* their appropriate sphere. I think I have seen women collecting manure in the streets of Liverpool. I have certainly seen them spreading it in Switzerland; and thousands

* Or, rather, to put in practice, for Mr. Thomas Hare has stated in his work on "Representation" a scheme which is at least of good promise.

are employed in labor in cotton factories, which obliges them to be as much away from home as any man of business in town. Some of these are mule-spinners, and very good ones. I believe some men, who would not allow themselves to be in favor of "women's rights," were very glad to get women to take up this rather laborious branch of cotton-spinning (to which it had almost been considered that men had an exclusive right) when the male spinners struck.

I adduce the above examples of occupation not as equally attractive and fit, but as illustrating what men suffer in this way without remonstrance when it is something they are used to or which is for their interest. I admit it has no conclusive bearing as to what occupations are fit for women. I think if they are left free to choose, they will be the best judges of that; but certainly it would not seem that the recent extension of employment for women had been of injury either to them or to civilization.

Secondly, there are vast numbers of women who have no families or children to take care of, and of these very, very many need to work for their support. A young woman of character, who may be one of several unmarried daughters dependent solely upon their father's labor, is in an uncomfortable and rather mortifying position if all that the custom of society allows her to do is to stay at home in idleness or try to get married. In old times, she might have spun or woven, but this is impracticable now, and it does not require three or four grown women to keep the house. It is very important, then, for her and for society that occupation should be freely open to her. After a time, perhaps, she may marry; but perhaps she may not, and many do not. If she does, she will have at least lost nothing; and if a young man who is a travelling salesman marries, he very properly tries to change his business for a more stationary one. At all events, if she has an occupation that gives her a support, she will not be obliged to marry for a living; and if she has been a book-keeper or a carpenter, she will be no worse a wife than many most excellent women who have worked at a loom or a spinning-frame till they were married. And if she is not married, it will surely be well that when her father dies there should not be left three or four helpless women without means of support.

L.

[We are not opposed in any way—but the contrary—to women's seeking out and engaging in any calling for which they conceive themselves, or can show themselves, to be fitted. The enforced idleness of so many of them is, as we have often said, a great curse. The article on the rights of children was meant to be a protest against the disgraceful and dangerous doctrine which has already made its appearance on woman's rights platforms, that the care of "puling, whining children" is an inferior occupation, unworthy of woman's powers, and to which she ought not to be expected to devote herself if she can find anything else to do. It is, on the contrary, the highest occupation in which she can engage, and all others are and ought to be considered and held subsidiary and subordinate to it. Of course, the Creator has provided against the spread of this doctrine by decreeing that the race or community which embraces it shall perish off the earth; but then a great deal of mischief may be done before the penalty begins to be felt. There is no future in this world for breeds that are not satisfied with one wife or one husband, and to whom marriage is not the most sacred of contracts, the rearing of children the highest of pleasures and duties, and home the most delightful of retreats. There is no field in which they are not sure in the long run to be worsted. Hardier and purer races will supplant them, till their fields, sit by their hearths, inherit their riches, and laugh with derision over the memory of their preambles and resolutions, their "harmonies" and "affinities."—ED. NATION.]

Notes.

LITERARY.

WE are glad to infer from the early appearance in print of the report of Hon. Samuel B. Ruggles, the delegate of the United States Government to the late International Statistical Congress, that the instructive proceedings of that body will in future become sooner available to the general public than in the past. Mr. Ruggles's report we consider a most valuable contribution to statistical science. It consists mainly of comparative tabu-

lar statements, accompanied by appropriate comments, of the cereal production of the United States and the other grain-growing countries of the world. The collection of the proper data was commenced by Mr. Ruggles during the Paris Exposition, which he attended as one of the United States Commissioners, and completed and brought up to the present year during the past summer by means of special reports on the subject from the American Ministers and Consuls, for which the State Department called at his instance. Without asserting the absolute correctness of the figures embodied in his report, Mr. Ruggles claims for them as much accuracy as can be reasonably expected from so difficult and in some measure novel an enquiry. According to his exhibit, the total cereal product of Europe in 1868 (including wheat, rye, barley, oats, buckwheat and millet, Indian corn, and rice) was 4,784,516,604 bushels, while that of the United States in the same year amounted to 1,405,449,000 bushels. The population of Europe being, according to the best authorities, 296,123,293, and that of the United States, according to current estimates, 39,000,000 in 1868, the average product per inhabitant appears to have been 16 bushels for Europe and 36 bushels for the United States. The relatively larger production of our country, compared with the Old World as a whole, Mr. Ruggles thinks is in a great degree due to the very general adoption of labor-saving machines and implements. First among the other grain-growing countries ranks Russia, whose cereal product in 1868 was 1,484,437,500 bushels. The united product, in the year named, of the "broad and fertile flanks of civilization," as Mr. Ruggles calls the two mighty empires of the eastern and western hemispheres, was nearly one-half of the aggregate yield of the countries tabulated in the report, thus showing their joint mission as the granaries of the world, which will become even more distinct as time goes on. The report contains, in addition to grain statistics, an interesting exhibit of the relative wealth of the United States and Europe in domestic animals, which proves the preponderance of the former also as regards this source of national prosperity. The latest statistics of the international commerce in cereals are also given by Mr. Ruggles, whose praiseworthy labors at once bore fruit in the form of the passage of a resolution, on his motion, by the Statistical Congress, requesting the delegates to report at the next session, three years hence, comprehensive statistics of the agricultural products of the countries which they represent.

A large portion of the elaborate argument in favor of additional railroad facilities from the West to the East, made by Hon. John A. Poor, of Portland, Me., in an address delivered at Rutland, Vt., last summer, and now printed in pamphlet form, is devoted to the same question of the future of the United States as a grain-growing country. Taking the agricultural and commercial statistics of this and foreign countries for a basis, Mr. Poor maintains that the production of grain in the United States will not only continue greatly to outstrip the demand for home consumption, but be largely in excess of the entire importations or necessities of Europe at large, and especially of those of Great Britain, as the largest grain importer of the Old World. Mr. Poor, in order to prove the danger of a chronic glut of cereals from our surplus production, refers to the smallness of our grain exports during the last four years, which amounted to but an aggregate of 26,835,869 bushels. Considering the variableness of the foreign demand for our surplus crops, according to the character of the harvests, from year to year, on the Continent of Europe, and the deranging effect of our inflated currency upon the prices of agricultural products, it will, perhaps, not be safe to predicate the prospect of this country as a grain exporter upon the experience of the period referred to. At the same time, no one familiar with the subject will be disposed to dispute what Mr. Poor says relative to the urgent necessity, if the profitability of agriculture is to be maintained in the United States, of providing additional facilities for transporting the enormous surplus product of the West to the Atlantic coast and beyond. The problem of lessening the cost of carrying grain to the sea-board is inferior in importance to no other economic question now before our public. Whether this can best be done by the construction of the Transcontinental Railway, of which Mr. Poor is so able and zealous an advocate, or by increasing the capacities of the existing highways of traffic, and by compelling the great railroad combinations of the present day to reduce their freight charges, we will not venture to decide. At all events, it seems to us that the extraordinarily low prices of staple products now ruling in the West will stimulate the millions of producers to remove, in one way or another, the partial cause of the present depreciation of the fruits of their labor—the excessive cost of transporting grain from the place of growth to the Eastern markets.

A correspondent thinks that if Mr. Gage had attempted to locate Gath on his map of Palestine (described in our last number), he would have

found some difficulty in doing so, since the site of that town is not yet agreed upon as identified. If this was Mr. Gage's reason, it was a good one, and we have nothing further to say. Most respectable maps generally insert Gath, along with many other places whose site is more or less conjectural.

The reproduction in fac-simile, by means of the carbon photograph, of the studies of the old masters, has been often mentioned in the *Nation*. Random specimens of these imitations have been from time to time exposed for sale in this city, and, if we are rightly informed, the agency for the remarkable series published by Braun, of Dornach on the Rhine, was offered Mr. Knoedler, but for some reason declined. It is now held by Mr. Hazeltine, of Philadelphia, and the sample-books at his print-shop contain some ten thousand specimens, or about half the entire number. They are taken in part from the cartoons preserved in the museums of London, Paris, Milan, Florence, Rome, Venice, Basle, Weimar, Vienna, etc., and in part consist of photographs of Swiss landscapes, costumes, and game-pieces, which, for made-up pictures, sell readily, at twelve dollars apiece. The agent is now engaged upon a stereotyped priced catalogue. The Library of Congress has ordered a complete set, mounted, bound, and lettered, with a full description attached to each print. We must content ourselves for the loss of this agency by praising the enterprise of Messrs. Ball, Black & Co. in being first to exhibit copies of the famous silverware unearthed a year ago at Hildesheim. Unfortunately they are not distinctly separated from other specimens in the same case, and we can only guess that there are nine or ten pieces in all, generally duplicated, and in two or three styles. They are not large, and perhaps are a trifle disappointing, especially as we miss the *crater* which covered the "find," and which crumbled to pieces soon after a cast had been made of it. This was the most beautiful of the lot. The second best piece is here—the Minerva Platter, and also the best of the drinking-cups. An egg-dish, with but little ornament, is as likely as any to be bought for actual use, and is well adapted for its purpose.

—Mr. J. W. Bouton has on sale a large and valuable collection of illustrated works, which it would require much time to examine even cursorily. The catalogue of it mentions nearly a dozen volumes on vellum, generally illuminated, and ranging from ten to upwards of three hundred dollars in price. There is a Bible, of the "extended" kind, in three volumes folio, having inserted plates, title-pages, etc., and valued at four hundred and fifty dollars. There are pretty full collections of the "Dance of Death," and of Cruikshankiana—the latter numbering forty-two titles, of which the first alone, a private selection, is set down at one hundred and twenty-five dollars. Besides books of this nature, there are several gems, reliquaries, bits of sculpture, and one oil-painting. Mr. Bouton's own collection is also an interesting one, but it is too extensive to be more than mentioned here.

—One of the editors of the *Revue de Droit International* has given in the last number a very instructive survey of the progress of public sentiment in Europe concerning patents. Neither in England nor among the Continental nations is the mode of procedure in granting patents the same as our own; and whenever attempts have been made to reform any given system, the American practice has been referred to with respect, as at least, if not perfect, an example of something better that might be adopted to advantage. No state, however, has been satisfied with its own provisions. Switzerland, for more than half a century, has had no patent laws, and has repeatedly refused to enact them. As a result, the Swiss are declared to be no whit behind their neighbors in inventiveness, but even to be eminent among them. Statesmen and other interested observers are satisfied that the protection afforded by patents is purely illusory, that the original inventor seldom reaps the fruit of his labors, and that patented inventions become "atrophied" because not allowed to attain perfection. Industry is fettered, and competition easily thwarted. Patents are bought up simply to prevent the use of them. And on the side of the government granting them, there is the difficulty of securing the profits of the patent to the person who deserves them, the impossibility of proportioning these profits to the service rendered, the inevitable inconvenience and injustice to which third parties are subjected, and, in the American system, the chances of corruption in the Patent Office, favorable to the owners of successful patents as against small inventors and less powerful capitalists. There is, besides, and before all, the question whether ideas can be regarded as absolute property; and the negative has been held by persons who fully admit the distinction between patent right and copyright. For twenty years past protests have been raised against the principle and effects of patents, in all parts of Europe, with the general verdict (not embodied as yet in legislation) that patents

are injurious to the growth of public prosperity. Such was the explicit affirmation of the Economic Congress at Dresden, in September, 1863, and only a year ago Count Bismarck, as federal chancellor, presented a memorial to the federal council in which he asserted that the Prussian Government had reached a conclusion adverse to patents on three grounds: (1) that the exceptional monopoly accorded by patent could be justified only by demonstrating it to be a social necessity—which could not be done; (2) that priority of application, even if secrecy could not be preserved, would generally suffice to remunerate the inventor; (3) that, in practice, no patent legislation has succeeded in producing more good than evil results. The chancellor desired an investigation of the subject by the committee on commerce, and a report; but none appears to have been made.

—Historical studies have met, in Germany, a sort of revival, evinced by the interest in the annual gathering in Munich and by the publishers' lists. During the past year have appeared three great volumes of the "Monumenta Germaniae Historica;" four volumes, replete with important historical documents, and also called "Monumenta," by Professor Jaffé, the industrious editor of "Regesta Pontificum;" and the second volume of the "Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum," published by the Berlin Academy, a great folio, containing a hundred sheets and two maps, bearing witness throughout, but especially in the introduction, to the industry, learning, and ingenuity of the editor, Dr. Emil Hübner. Professor Sybel, of Bonn, publishes the second volume of his "Kleinere historische Schriften" (Minor Historical Essays), entitled "Portions of Prussian History," "Germany and Denmark in the XIIIth Century," "Letters of Queen Marie Antoinette," "Emperor Leopold II.," "Austria and Prussia in the War of the Revolution," "Prussia and the Rhine Country," and "Foundation of the Bonn University." Interesting documents relating to the history of the institution accompany the latter—the rector's oration at its recent jubilee, and decidedly the best of the collection, particularly excelling a similar attempt by Professor Köpke, of Berlin, in taking the political importance of the establishment of the seminary into account. Von Ranke's "Wallenstein" has been reprinted with scarce an alteration; but the thirteenth volume of his complete works, containing materials and authorities for Prussian history, has been subjected to a thorough revision since its first appearance in 1860, and is now especially rich in long missing documents concerning the history of the Fronde. A paper read by the same author before the Berlin Academy respecting William (IV.) of Orange and Frederick the Great affords remarkable glimpses into the politics and life of the last century. Professor Eysenhardt has re-edited the collection of minor historians of the empire known as "Historia Miscella," left without re-edition since the seventeenth century, collating anew the best manuscripts, and bringing to light hitherto inedited fragments, so that one can now follow the imperial reigns since Constantine almost without interruption. Wilhelm Parthey has published the ancient description of Rome, called "Mirabilia Urbis Romæ," according to Italian manuscripts. No copy of the earlier edition (1510) of this work was believed to be extant after the inexplicable disappearance of the one belonging to the Prussian archaeological institute in Rome, but shortly after the issue of Parthey's book another was found at Naples, which shows such important differences that a new edition is desirable and will be given in the *Mittheilungen* of S. Calvary & Co. "Zur Topographie von Athen" (Concerning the Topography of Athens), by Ernst Curtius, gives entirely new explanations of the situation of the city and public buildings, illustrating the whole with numerous maps. Professor Bähr, of Heidelberg, has been able, by incorporating the many appendices of former editions with the text, to make a new edition of his "Geschichte der römischen Literatur" (History of Roman Literature), at once more easy of survey and a better portrait of the Roman culture. Of Teuffel's "Geschichte der lateinischen Literatur," another part has been published, embracing the poetry of the "golden age," and giving in brief compass the best picture of this epoch we know. Though merely elementary, the work is valuable as treating Roman lyric poetry from an entirely new standpoint; the two preceding parts have already been translated into Dutch and Italian.

—Our readers have already had some information concerning the Chaucer Society, which was formed in England in 1868, and which has an American secretary in the person of Professor F. J. Child. That there was great need of an effort to do justice to the poet, everybody knows who knows the condition of the published texts of those works which are his beyond a doubt, and who knows how very doubtfully his are many of the lesser works which go under his name without adding anything at all to his reputation. This effort the Society we have mentioned is making, and, so far as it has proceeded with its labor, is meeting with very gratifying

success. Already we have some nine or ten publications over which lovers of Chaucer may well rejoice, for one would rather say that they make a thorough, satisfactory study of the poet now for the first time possible than that they shed merely some additional light on materials previously within reach. Indeed, much more than this can be said. Whatever humanity is going to be hereafter, it is certain that in these times the special admirers, the lovers of any poet, however great—the enthusiastic students of Chaucer, of Dante, of Homer, of Shakespeare himself—are a comparatively small class, whose pursuits interest but a few among the tribes of men. But the class of men who, in this country of ours, are now just awaking to the necessity of studying in its schools the sources of our English language, is a large one, and one that grows with rapidity. Perhaps for every two or three new universities that are provided in the West, there appears at least one man who is persuaded that a university library in an English-speaking country should afford the means of making a thorough study of the works that stand as the beginnings of our literature, past, present, and to come. Now, to this study the books of the Chaucer Society are an efficient help. Take, for example, this title-page of a book by Mr. Alexander J. Ellis, the volume before us being the second of the Society's publications: "On Early English Pronunciation, with Especial Reference to Shakespere and Chaucer; containing an investigation of the correspondence of writing with speech in England, from the Anglo-Saxon Period to the present day; preceded by a systematic notation of all spoken sounds by means of the ordinary printing types. Including a rearrangement of Professor Child's memoirs on the language of Chaucer and Gower, and reprints of the rarer tracts by Galesbury on English (1547) and Welch (1567), and by Barclay on French (1521)." This surely seems to promise a book that no teacher of English grammar in the larger sense and of the use of English in writing can in anywise afford to neglect. The first in time of the society's publications is "A Six-Text Print" of the "General Prologue" to the "Canterbury Tales," and of the "Knight's Tale." It is a volume to which—as regards its size and shape—we are unable to give the right technical name; but it is oblong in shape, and is shorter from top to bottom than from the back margin of the page to the front. On each page are printed in three parallel columns about forty lines of the poetry, so that as the book lies open before the student he has under his eye at the same moment, in beautiful type and on fine paper, forty lines of Chaucer according to the Ellesmere manuscript, forty according to the Hengwrt, and the same number according to the Cambridge, Corpus, Petworth, and Lansdowne manuscripts. In course of time will follow all the other tales, printed in the same admirably beautiful and useful manner, and we shall at last have a "Chaucer" such as no Chaucerian scholar has yet had, and in a dress worthy the superiority. All those of the Society's publications arranged under the general title of "First Series" will be texts. The related literary, critical, and philological works will go into the so-called "Second Series," and it is these that the student of English who cares little for Chaucer, or who cannot afford to buy all the books he needs, may find it preferable to procure. Some few of them may be purchased separately, we believe; Mr. Ellis's certainly may. But the cost of a year's subscription is not great. Doubtless some of our readers know by experience the many small vexatious troubles of importing books, through our custom-houses or post-offices, from a country unpossessed of the fluctuating currency—and the Wall-street men who riot upon its waves—with which we here are blessed. We are glad to say that the person who decides to have dealings with the Chaucer Society will be spared all the bother and uncertainty which probably may have beset him in his dealings with similar bodies in times past. American subscriptions for 1868, 1869, and 1870 will be received on these terms: A guinea in gold shall be estimated as worth six dollars in currency, and the expenses of transportation from London to the subscriber's local post-office shall be set down at one dollar. For thirteen dollars, then, one has the books of a year; and the American subscriber may, if he chooses, transmit his money to the Society through Mr. Child, at Cambridge. Thus he gets his books a little cheaper—or, at all events, fully as cheap as if he were resident in England—and with as little personal trouble. At the risk of reminding people of the professor who, on the last page of his work upon the Athenian tragic drama, suddenly said that "the conclusion of the whole matter is that the theatre is the bane of Harvard College," we feel moved to say that one bane of American youth, wherever throughout the country they are gathered together in colleges, is the temptation that besets them to the oratorical, and ornate, and frothy, and noisy, and pinchbeck in literature, whether that of others' making or their own attempting; and we seldom have occasion to speak of the ancient wells of English without wishing that we could prevail on all educators of young men to lead thither all their flocks.

"ACROSS AMERICA AND ASIA."*

PROFESSOR RAPHAEL PUMPELLY has given us one of the most interesting books of travels we have ever read—full of graphic and lively sketches of a large portion of our earth, and of our fellow-beings who live on it. In the autumn of 1860 he started for the wilderness of Arizona, where he spent many months in mining operations, and where he encountered numerous adventures with the savage Apaches, and equally savage border-ruffians who infest that country, and from whom he often narrowly escaped with life. At length he wisely abandoned that worse than heathen land, and proceeded to California, where he heard of his appointment as a mining engineer to the Government of Japan. In November, 1861, he sailed from San Francisco across the Pacific, stopping at the Sandwich Islands long enough to make some fine sketches, and thence to Japan. He spent about a year in that country, being occupied most of the time in mining explorations, when his engagement with the Government was brought to an end by the influence of the conservative party, who were jealous of foreign employees, especially of their spying out the land. The author's sketches of Japan—the physical features of the country, the character and habits of the people, their politics and religion, and their historic antecedents—are exceedingly interesting and well drawn. From Japan he crossed over to the shores of the great continent, arriving at Shanghai in February, 1863. After passing a few weeks at this port, he went up the river Yang-tse as far as Han-kow in a steamer, and from thence to a considerable distance beyond, in a Chinese boat. His description of the magnificent scenery, and the various adventures he met with, is very fine. In the fall of this year he proceeded to Peking, and there, at the suggestion of the foreign ministers, he was employed by the Imperial Government to explore the coal mines in the north of China, but in a few months his services were dispensed with on the plea that the steamers for whose use the coal was specially designed were to be sold off. He then spent several months in travelling about the country in the neighborhood of the capital and along the Great Wall. Finally, he arranged with two other gentlemen to travel together through Tartary and Siberia to Europe, and they started on their adventurous journey on the 12th November, 1864. Each of the party was provided with a separate rude cart covered with a housing of felt, mounted on a pair of wheels without springs, and drawn by Bactrian camels, while a number of the same animals carried the baggage. In this way they journeyed over the plateau of Tartary, and across the great desert of Gobi to the frontier town of Kiakhta, which they reached in safety on the 21st December. During the journey they encountered several severe storms, and nearly perished from cold. From Kiakhta they travelled by post, and were well provided with all those appliances which Russian experience has proved to be best adapted to secure the comfort of the traveller in that country. In the middle of January they crossed Lake Baikal, driving rapidly for thirty miles over its surface of glittering ice, and arrived safely at Irkutsk, and thence onward in midwinter through the principal Siberian towns, and over the Ural Mountains to Moscow and St. Petersburg. In this journey Mr. Pumelly sometimes found the thermometer as low as 70 degrees below zero. His narrative of what he saw and encountered from the time of leaving Peking until he crossed the Ural Mountains, although fine, is rendered tantalizing by its rapidity and brevity.

A large portion of the book is devoted to China and the Chinese, and as it is dedicated to Anson Burlingame, we may infer that Mr. Pumelly considers this portion to be of prime importance. While we have great admiration of the book, and feel great respect for the author for his intelligence, humanity, manliness, and philosophic spirit, which are conspicuous throughout his writings, we think perhaps some exceptions should here be made, although most of it meets our hearty approval. The author says that his first impressions of the Chinese were exceedingly unfavorable, and that it was only from the time of his arrival in Peking and intercourse with Mr. Burlingame that he dates his real study of the people, and "learned to free himself from the prejudices which every traveller is apt to contract upon the China coast;" hence, he subsequently "looked upon the Chinese from an entirely different standpoint."

Now, though independence and fairness are amongst the author's most prominent characteristics, we cannot help feeling, that looking at the Chinese from some one stand-point, whether favorable or unfavorable, has exercised a warping influence on his judgment; and in trying to avoid doing the Chinese injustice, he has made their portrait a little too favorable. Mr. Pumelly will excuse us if we recall to his notice the words of Crom-

well to the courtly artist. Has he not left out a spot or a wrinkle? Many, we are inclined to think; not only that, his generous advocacy has impelled him to follow the example of certain advocates at the bar who think to help the cause of their client by "attacking plaintiff's attorney"—by assaulting his opponents—for such appears to be the foreigner in relation to the Chinese. His description of the foreign residents in Shanghai is one of the most severe we have ever seen. In describing them he puts them all together and makes an *average*, and says that the "average foreigner in China" is wholly ignorant of everything connected with the history, social organization, and true character of the people, and that he looks down upon them as a mere swarm of chattering animals, though useful as producers of tea and consumers of opium; that however ignorant and superstitious he may be himself, he looks with disdain upon the woful superstition of the Chinese; and, for all these reasons, with a consciousness of his own superiority, he "makes the life and rights of a Chinaman subordinate to his own convenience." And then the author says, "I will here give one of the many instances which I saw illustrative of this line of conduct;" and he then describes a pleasure excursion which he took on the Wu-sung river on board a steamboat, "which was crowded with most of the leading foreigners of Shanghai," and that on approaching a narrow part of the river they met a large scow so heavily laden with brick that she was almost unmanageable by the four Chinamen who were in her, but who were straining every muscle to get out of the way, and were uttering cries for a few instants' grace, yet the captain refused to slow his speed, and cried out to the hesitating pilot to "Go ahead!" and the steamer crashed into the scow. There was a shriek—a shock—a staggering motion of the vessel—and she then steamed up the channel, leaving the crushed boat and the drowning men to their fate. No one on board but himself—and he was horrified—showed the slightest concern; and he adds, "It has long been the practice of foreign vessels to run into and sink any junk or boat that might be in their way, no matter how crowded with passengers they may be; and probably scarcely a day passed without a boat being thus sunk in Chinese waters!" And, also: "After such an occurrence I was not surprised to see foreigners walking through crowded streets and *incessantly* belaboring the heads of men, women, and children with heavy walking-sticks to open a path," etc. Now, what a frightful picture is this of the character and conduct of the foreigners in Shanghai. And if "most of the *leading foreigners*" of this place have such cold-blooded, criminal indifference to human life as they evinced on board the steamer, how awful must be the *average* man, let alone the lowest. We hope and believe that Mr. Pumelly's imagination and feelings blinded his judgment when he was writing the above reports. Even his salvo of "many noble exceptions" weigh but little against his charges upon "most of the leading foreigners."

We will here say that most of the steamers which run on the inner waters of China are managed by Americans, and the commanders are strictly enjoined to exercise the utmost care to avoid all collision with native craft, large or small; that accidents now rarely occur, and whenever they do, the injured parties appeal to the consular court, where damages are always allowed, except in cases where the negligence has been so culpable as to prove a bar. It is the same under English management. This story of the steamer and the scow has been paraded in one of our leading journals as an instance of "*British* brutality in China;" but Mr. Pumelly does not intimate that she was British. She was probably one of the American lines. That there are some bad specimens of Western civilization in the open ports of China, there is no doubt; but we are confident that they do not form so large a portion of the foreign community as the above charges imply.

Mr. Pumelly is inclined to consider the Chinese naturally civil and kindly disposed, and that when they appear to the contrary it is owing to the brutal conduct of the foreigner. Although there are some instances in favor of this view, there are yet many more against it—his own experience in the town of Yan-ning, in the far north of China, is one of them. Neither is it worth while to speculate on the honesty of the Chinese compared with other peoples, for Mr. Pumelly shows that the honesty of the little ragged boy of Peking was counterbalanced by the attempt to rob him of his money at the village of Tan-li-chuen at the north. In truth, the Chinese are by nature but little better or worse than other people. The thieves and vagabonds which infest all their large cities, and which fly at all game, have not been created by the conduct of the outside barbarian, but they are the indigenous and natural product of the country, and they would flourish just as much as they do now if no "red-haired devil" had ever appeared among them. With these excep-

* "Across America and Asia. Notes of a Five Years' Journey around the World, and a Residence in Arizona, Japan, and China. By Raphael Pumelly, Professor in Harvard University, and some time mining engineer in the employ of the Chinese and Japanese Governments." Second edition. New York: Leypoldt & Holt. 1869.

tions, we think that Mr. Pumelly's sketches of the Chinese are very correct, and well drawn. We believe that the Chinese are capable of as high a civilization as any other portion of the human family, and that the principal reason why they have not made greater advance in their long career has been their almost complete isolation, which has deprived them of that wholesome friction with other peoples and other ideas which are so necessary to a vigorous development. Their slavish veneration for antiquity, and their isolation, are still the great obstacles in the way of their improvement, and we long to see them removed; but they will never be removed if a thoroughly "let-alone policy" should be fully carried out. The Western governments should be just and generous in their dealings with China, of course, and demand nothing from her which is not as much for her interest to yield as for us to receive, or which is adverse to her independence and prosperity; but, always bearing these views in mind, they may justly exercise a steady moral pressure to assist her forward motion in the path of progress.

The question of Chinese immigration into our own country is one of the gravest importance. Mr. Pumelly's remarks upon it are entitled to much consideration, but time and experience alone will determine the great problem. The evils of class legislation on the one side, and those of universal manhood suffrage on the other, can only be avoided by the establishment of an organic law which would make the franchise dependent upon certain educational qualifications, alike applicable to all men, native or foreign born, of any race or complexion. Then all men would have a fair chance in the struggle for higher advancement, and the question of the homogeneity of races might be determined.

In writing of the fine arts of Japan in former numbers of the *Nation*, we have expressed regret for the almost total disregard and apparently wilful ignorance of this most interesting subject which the books of travellers display. Among the dozen or more records of travel and residence in the land of the Rising Sun, we find no hint that there is anything curious or valuable to be got out of Japanese art, whether as explanatory of the life of the people, or as historically instructive, or as faithfully representing the birds and plants and scenery of the lovely country, or, for its own sake, as a complete, harmonized, and independent school of fine art, of unexampled character, and unmatched in modern times for universal and even merit. A Frenchman voyaging in the United States may be excused for not treating of most of the specimens of the fine arts that he sees, because little of our art expresses in any way our national character or represents our life and habits. But in Japan, where, as Mr. Pumelly tells us, confirming what we all feel, the religion and the literature are alike unknown to foreigners, and the everyday life of the people little observed, where, moreover, a very well-organized school of art does exist, every one would be supposed impatient to learn what he might by watching that account of the Japanese which their own artists have made in the only language legible to men of all tongues.

Mr. Pumelly, it is little to say, is a traveller of another sort. Things meant to be seen and worth seeing, he has seen and remembered. The pages he gives to Japan are full of instances of close observation, and of a power of reading the language of art. The few words here and there about the peculiar features of the landscape in Japan, and the description of the Japanese houses and temples, including Daibutz, the great statue-temple at Kanagawa, are all to the point, and instructive. Serious discussion of the Japanese fine arts, in a technical way, he has left to Mr. John La Farge, the painter, who furnishes to the book one of its most valuable chapters.

If we call that chapter the most complete and intelligent essay upon Japanese art that we have read, we shall not wrong Mr. Rossetti's papers nor Mr. Feydeau's—all valuable but limited in their range—nor Mr. Leighton's pamphlet, written at a time when little knowledge of the subject was within his reach. England and France are not so hopelessly ahead of America in opportunities to study this art as they are in all that relates to European art. For study, from the artist's rather than the collector's point of view, of Japanese decoration and picture-making, Mr. La Farge has, in his own possession and Mr. Pumelly's gatherings, as good opportunities as all the treasures of South Kensington would give him. That he has used his opportunities, that he is one of the few painters who can write, and that Mr. Pumelly is to be thanked for having obtained this artist's exposition of a curious art, every one will feel who reads this chapter with any attention.

The many interesting questions about the dates of different kinds of lacquer and bronze-work, the processes employed for the production of strange effects in metal and wood, lacquer and enamel, processes unknown

to Europe, Mr. Lafarge has not considered. He has devoted his eight pages to a close analysis of the peculiar merits of the Japanese artists considered as students of nature and designers of decoration. To satisfy one's self with quoting would be to reprint the eight pages; but we must quote this on color:

"the very crown of that power over color always an heirloom of the East, and a separate gift from ours. To Eastern directness, fulness, and splendor, the Japanese add a sobriety, a simplicity, a love of subdued harmonies and imperceptible gradations, and what may be called an intellectual refinement akin to something in the Western mind."

And again, take this note, suggesting a thought which must occur to every student of the art in question, but to others needs to be suggested:

"I remember a print in which a silvered sickle of a moon shone through the most delicate gray fog-clouds, as correctly edged as if by the [instantaneous] photograph, and melting into the very texture of the paper. Over this were faint lines of falling rain, and an inscription, perfectly distinct, but as pale as the faintest wash of India ink. If we admire this refinement, what are we to think of that which it addresses in Japan?"

But the best part of this paper in which all is good we take to be the remarks upon the fabulous creatures in the Hokusai drawings, the bird-like men and the satyr-like demons. To the completeness of the designer's conception of these monsters, their probable appearance, as if they lived somewhere not farther away than the Antipodes, the freedom with which they are drawn in any attitude and engaged in any pursuit, we have called attention in former numbers of the *Nation*. Mr. La Farge, speaking with the authority of a painter of the figure and of character, comments upon the great merit of these designs considered as imaginative conceptions. Without quoting further, we refer the reader to page 199, the fac-simile engraving opposite, and the note at the foot of the page. The key-note of Japanese representative art is struck. The critic has done his duty, of pointing out the essence of the thing criticised.

DR. JOHN LORD'S ANCIENT HISTORY.*

DR. LORD'S new history contains, in some respects, even more than its plain title and brief preface promise us. It is to be a history of states and empires only, and yet it tells us all about the "Garden of Eden," "Adam and Eve," "Primeval Paradise," the "Situation of Eden," the "Glory of Eden," "The Temptation," and even "The Devil," for, "the tempter was the devil—the antagonist of God—the evil power of the world—the principle of evil—a Satanic agency which Scripture and all nations, in some form, have recognized." It is to form "a connected narrative, without theories or comments," and yet it gives us not only speculations like that just quoted, but also suppositions and inferences of all kinds. Thus, we are told that "we may reasonably suppose" the said tempter to have been "not merely subtle, but attractive, graceful, beautiful, bewitching," and that "it is not unreasonable to infer, though we cannot know with certainty, that the antediluvian world was more splendid and luxurious than the world in the time of Solomon and Homer—the era of the Pyramids of Egypt." The "great movements to which the Scriptures refer" are to be "briefly presented," and yet they occupy in the book about a hundred times as much space as the history of China, Hindostan, Bactria, Meroë, Egypt under the early Ptolemies, Parthia, and Neo-Persia, all put together—some of which, it is true, are only alluded to in a line or two, and others unmentioned.

Dr. Lord is, however, much less modest when he speaks of having "simplified, abridged, and condensed" "the last standard authorities," such as "Rawlinson, Grote, Thirlwall, Niebuhr, Mommsen, and Merivale"—for his work, far from being a simplification, abridgment, or condensation of standard authorities, is—we must speak it out plainly—a compilation of the poorest kind, swarming with stupid repetitions, contradictions, and inaccuracies, the number and grossness of which can only be explained on the supposition that in his haste to compile he never looked back to compare and harmonize. A few quotations, all drawn from two short chapters, will suffice to prove our assertion. On page 90 we read of "a great movement among the Turanian races (Cimmerians) living north of the Danube, which, according to Herodotus, made a great irruption into Asia Minor . . . while the Scythians, from Central Asia, overran Media." On the following page the same movement is spoken of thus: "Asia Minor was devastated by the Cimmerians—a people who came from the regions north of the Black Sea, between the Danube and the Sea of Azov, being driven away by an inundation of Scythians, like that which afterward desolated Media. These Cimmerians . . . burned the great

* "Ancient States and Empires; for Colleges and Schools. By John Lord, LL.D., author of the 'Old Roman World,' 'Modern History,' etc." New York: Charles Scribner & Co. 1869.

Temple of Diana, at Ephesus, and destroyed the capital city of Sardis." Again, on page 103, we read that "the inroad of the Scythians in Media took place about the same time that the Cimmerians invaded Lydia, a nomad race which probably inhabited the Tauric Chersonesus (Crimea)," and "may have been urged forward into Asia Minor by an invasion of the Scythians themselves. . . . The Cimmerians fled before this more warlike race, abandoned their country on the northern coast of the Euxine, and invaded Asia Minor. They occupied Sardis, and threatened Ephesus." Page 90 tells us that those "nomads of Tartary, or Scythian tribes, which overran Western Asia," subsequently, "under the new names of Huns, Avars, Bulgarians, Magyars, Turks, Mongols, devastated Europe and Asia for fifteen successive centuries." Page 103 repeats it thus: "These nomadic tribes from Tartary were the precursors of Huns, Avars, Bulgarians, Magyars, Turks, Mongols, and Tartars, who, at different periods, invaded the civilized portions of Asia and Europe." That these Scythian invaders were finally vanquished by Cyaxares, we hear a number of times. That with him "the great Median kingdom really began" we read on page 90, but on page 102 we are informed that already his father, "Phraortes, son of Deioces, who [referring to Deioces] built the city of Ecbatana . . . greatly extended the empire of the Medes." That he reigned forty years, from B.C. 633 to B.C. 593, we learn on pp. 90, 91; but page 102 tells us that he reigned from B.C. 636 to B.C. 595. That "before" he made war against Alyattes of Lydia, the father of Croesus, "he probably captured Nineveh and destroyed it," is stated on page 90; but on page 103 we hear that "shortly after" the "war between these two powers was terminated" he "laid siege to Nineveh." According to page 103, that war "was terminated by the marriage of the daughter of the Lydian king with the son of the Median monarch, Cyaxares," which is—whatever the grammar of both sentences may be—but a paraphrase of what, on page 91, we have read thus: "On the conclusion of peace, the son of the Median king, Astyages, married the daughter of the Lydian monarch, Alyattes"—Cyaxares and Alyattes denoting fathers and monarchs, and Astyages the son of both versions. This marriage made Astyages and Croesus, the son of Alyattes, brothers-in-law, but on page 94 the former is designated the father-in-law of the latter. This Croesus is mentioned on page 92 as "the first of the Asiatic kings who commenced hostile aggressions on the Greeks," while on the preceding page we read that it was "Gyges . . . who began those aggressions on the Grecian colonies which were consummated by Croesus," a statement repeated on page 102, thus: "With this king [Gyges] commenced the aggressions from Sardis on the Asiatic Greeks, which ended in their subjection." According to page 91, Gyges founded his dynasty in Lydia "B.C. 724," but according to page 102 "about the year 715 B.C." Of the neighbors of Lydia in Asia Minor we read in one paragraph, pp. 100, 101, the following geographical notices: "Along the western shores of this great peninsula were Pelasgians . . . Phrygians;" "Further eastward were Lycians . . . Phrygians;" "The Phrygians, Mysians, and Teucrians were on the northwest;" "In the region of Mount Ida were the Teucrians and Mysians." And there is much more of the same kind on the few pages quoted from.

The revision of the book is quite worthy of the scholarship displayed in its composition. For illustration's sake we pick out a few of its numberless misprints: Geseneus, Usshur, Amrapher, Lepides, Sotor, Eupater (repeatedly given), Silamus, Goetæ, Bythinians (repeatedly), Parnisus (for Pamisus), Byzantium (for Byzacium, in Africa), Tanagona (for Tarragona, properly Tarraco), Tanaconeusis (for Tarraconensis), Peireus (for Piraeus), Athenæ (as name of Minerva), Moeris (for Morris), Ramezes and Ramesis (repeatedly, for Rameses), Tadyattes (for Sadyattes), Urumizu (for Urumieh), Tagros (repeatedly, for Zagros), Sykia (for Lycia), Ahenobarbus (nine times, on page 590 and the annexed Genealogical Table, for Ahenobarbus, which is not once correctly given.) We presume it is not the compositor and proof-reader alone who are responsible for all these and similar mistakes, even if we are to relieve the author of a book "designed chiefly for educational purposes" of the duty of carefully revising it himself, or having it revised by a man more competent than himself. To do the latter would, in this case, certainly have been the safer, if the general impression produced on our mind by the works of Dr. Lord be correct. For we consider his competency to revise a historical proof—even of his own—to be as low as his ability to write a history. A compiler by profession, but apparently devoid of that degree of knowledge without which no one can produce even a useful compilation, he is certainly able to write out properly from a book before him such names as Sadyattes, Zagros, or Byzacium; but when his compositor changes these names into Tadyattes,

Tagros, and Byzantium, his historical and geographical knowledge seems not to be sufficient to make him remember that no Tadyattes ever reigned in Lydia, that there was no mountain range called Tagros on the confines of Assyria and Media, and no Byzantium in the Roman province of Africa. No name ever strikes him as suspiciously unfamiliar, no date or statement of fact as conflicting with others given. Names, dates, facts—he has forgotten them as soon as copied.

GENERAL LIPPITT ON FIELD SERVICE.*

MORE than a year ago, in the *Nation* of June 18, 1868, we spoke with commendation of the earlier works of General Lippitt; and what we said in praise of them might be repeated in behalf of the book now before us, in which the author has condensed in an admirable manner the well-established principles which should govern field service in war. In a style peculiarly clear and intelligible, and with a crisp completeness, he has compressed into his handy volume the fundamental rules for the conduct of marches, camps and cantonments, outposts, convoys, reconnaissances, foraging, and for furnishing supplies to an army in the field. More than this, he has found room for instances taken from various campaigns to illustrate how important it is to be guided by these rules, and has given the student of war new suggestions of his own, evidently criticisms on what he has himself seen in the field.

We quote one or two instances in which we believe that the late experience of our armies has proved the wisdom of the author's advice: "Most of the employés connected with transportation teams in our service have hitherto been civilians hired by the Quartermaster's Department. It would be a great improvement to require them all to be enlisted soldiers, and to give to this branch of the service a military organization like the others." In some cases these civilian teamsters drew considerably more pay than the soldiers had, besides being fed at the Government charge, and of course this led to invidious comparisons. We have heard a story told of a soldier that he had applied to be *breveted* a teamster, and assigned to duty with his brevet rank. Add greater expense to the many other disadvantages urged by General Lippitt of employing civilians in the army, and there seems to be overwhelming cause why his suggestion should be adopted. And here is a recommendation which every one will echo who is fond of a horse, and hates to see him abused: "It is very unwise, as was repeatedly shown in our late war, to exhaust cavalry horses by requiring of them more picket duty than is absolutely necessary. Cavalry has enough to do in picketing for itself and for the artillery. Infantry should do its own picketing, except where special emergencies call for cavalry." We hope that before we have another war this suggestion will have grown to have the force of a law, like a good many others of our author's suggestions. We remember that through the winter of 1863-64 one of our cavalry corps—not above 10,000 horses, all told—picketed more than sixty miles of country, day and night, in rain, mud, snow, and ice, with an army of infantry behind it, mostly snug in tents; though any respectable infantryman would willingly go on picket if he knew that he would thereby help to make a good cavalry which might some day help him out of a worse scrape than having to take an occasional "turn" on post.

To some of the author's rules the merest civilian would say, "Why, of course!" and wonder that to men of sense there should be need of stating such bare-faced truisms as this, for example: "If the march of a column must be immediately reversed in order to get into battle, it must be done by a simple *facing about*, and not by a countermarch, which would cause an unnecessary loss of time." But this is followed by an illustration which shows its point: "At the battle of Shiloh, General Lew Wallace's division was only five miles in the rear of our right, where the fight was raging fiercest, and where it was sorely needed. It had been ordered up early in the morning, but, from mistaking the road, it was marching in the wrong direction until one o'clock P.M., when it was set right. Instead of simply facing the column about, its commander ordered a countermarch, which caused such a loss of time that the division did not arrive on the ground till seven o'clock, when its services were no longer needed."

Such incidents as these, which are freely given by way of illustration, are generally very apt and specific, giving to the book a color of history; and when names and dates are furnished we find a strong satisfaction in

* "Field Service in War: Comprising Marches, Camps and Cantonments, Outposts, Convoys, Reconnaissances, Foraging, and Notes on Logistics. By Francis J. Lippitt, late Colonel 2d California Infantry, Brevet-Brigadier General U. S. Volunteers; author of 'Tactical Use of the Three Arms,' 'Intrenchments,' and 'The Special Operations of War.'" New York: D. Van Nostrand. 1869.

them; it is well to have them as warnings, costly and shameful as many of them were. The military student will recognize in Banks's expedition to Shreveport, for instance, a shining example of how a march in the enemy's country ought not to be conducted, and even in its details it will fix itself in his memory by its incomparable negative excellence. We have no doubt that the author has been generally careful to take authentic examples for his purpose; but in one case he makes a very vague charge which we cannot accept without proof. He says: "The repeated hesitations, delays, and failures of the Army of the Potomac in 1863 after the battle of Gettysburg appear to have been caused mainly by our corps commanders not going personally to the front, and contenting themselves with mere reports of the enemy being in force at particular points." It is not stated where or when the corps commanders failed to go personally to the front, and we are left to wonder if the pursuit of Lee from Gettysburg is meant, or the hesitation to attack him afterward in his position on the Potomac. In our opinion this charge has no good foundation. As General Meade, in his report on the battle of Gettysburg, distinctly says so, there is no reason to doubt that he deliberately determined to follow the enemy by a flank movement on hearing from General Sedgwick, in the advance, that the Fairfield pass by which Lee's troops had retreated through the mountains was "very strong, and one in which a small force of the enemy could hold in check and delay for a considerable time any pursuing forces." Very few will believe that General Sedgwick sent such a report without first seeing for himself. It is true that General A. P. Howe, commanding a division of the sixth corps, testified before the Congressional Committee on the Conduct of the War that he notified General Sedgwick that the Fairfield pass "was a place in which we could easily attack the enemy with advantage," but as General Sedgwick does not seem to have thought so, this is hardly proof that he contented himself with the report of his subordinate. The hesitation to attack Lee at Williamsport, on the Potomac, a few days later, could not possibly have arisen from the cause which General Lippitt alleges, the enemy's lines being plain to see from our line of battle. These being the facts, so far as we are aware of them, we think that the author should be more particular to state who were the men whose negligence is so notorious as to point a moral.

The book ends with the "Notes on Logistics" (the art of supplying and moving an army in the field), a subject "second in importance only to strategy itself." Living on the enemy's country, when practicable, is the author's mode of meeting the difficulties of this problem, "making war support war." Our Western armies furnish the proofs how well this mode may succeed; but while the author does not preach tenderness towards an enemy's larder and corn-bin even in civil war, he reprobates strongly such loose foraging as Sherman's "bummers" indulged in. With his strong views on the propriety of levying on the enemy for supplies, we commend General Lippitt for his condemnation of those rascals. General Kilpatrick had, we remember, what seemed to him an amusing story of the "bummers." One of them, far in advance of the army, went into a house and asked for tobacco, then for molasses; then he put a quid of the tobacco into the molasses jar, in hopes that some other "bummer" would come along soon, and finding the molasses bitter would suppose it was poisoned, and would thereupon set fire to the house. The tenderness of the first "bummer" in not setting it on fire himself is almost equalled by a merciful suggestion of General Lippitt's: "Even when it is not supposed that any compensation will ever be paid, it is well to offer to the owners certificates of their property having been taken for the use of the army." The second "bummer" might not come along, and the owner with the certificate might get paid. The true solution of the problem of logistics appears to be to cut down transportation, a seeming paradox, but capable of demonstration with determined effort and good example on the part of all officers.

We have skimmed over this book, touching lightly on prominent points, but leaving much unnoticed which is well worthy of attention. As a literary work, it has the merit of condensation and clearness in a high degree. For military readers the book will have a permanent value, and for the many readers to whom our own war has given an interest in military works it will be an excellent guide in judging of the merits of some of our own campaigns. We think that every reader, when he shuts the book, will agree with us that for field service in war there is one quality without which energy and bravery are as nothing; he will hope that all generals in a good cause may have it; and he will feel that most successes are due to it, as most failures are due to the want of it. We mean the homely quality of common sense.

ILLUSTRATED GIFT-BOOKS AGAIN.

THE illustrations to the "Midsummer Night's Dream," designed by Mr. Konewka,* are of a kind almost wholly new in serious art. They are full silhouettes, and represent the persons of the drama as if by their shadows on a white wall. Pictures of this kind are better known in comic journals than elsewhere, *Punch* having much affected them before 1850, and Cruikshank's *Comic Almanac* as well, though to a less extent, and although the great humorist himself did not design them, so far as we know. Those were generally on a small scale; these are larger—that is, the erect figure of a man comes out three and a half inches high. *Old Egeus* telling of his troubles, a single figure, very cleverly imagined; *Hermia* and *Lysander* vowing eternal faithfulness; *Bottom*, in 'Ercles' vein, the best design in the book; *Puck* and the *Fairy*; *Oberon* and *Titania* beginning their little quarrel. These are the first five pictures, and there are twenty more like these. Every figure has to be in profile, of course, excepting one, *Demetrius*, whose head only is; but in spite of this, and in spite of the very narrow limits of the style of design, there is sufficient variety and action, and the characters are well distinguished. The book affords a delightful copy of the drama, in ample pages and beautiful type, just the form in which to read it under the study-lamp and *aloud*; and the pictures are not unsatisfactory as illustrations.

It should be said, though, to correct some misapprehensions which were to be observed when the English edition was before the public a year ago, that drawing in this way is not more difficult, but more easy, than drawing in full light and shade. That is to say, the very limited result possible to obtain in this way is soon and simply obtained; the artist has one thing only to do, to draw such outline of features and of gesture as will express the character he imagines. If we were to take away the solid black that fills up the figure, and call upon the artist to complete the design, that would be quite another task. A hundred artists can arrive at such success as is seen here, for one who can make drawings in full light and shade that will be as successful in their way. Every one will remember the portraits of himself and friends cut out of black paper, which he has submitted to have made at fairs and the like. The victim does not suppose that the clever scissor-man who "cuts him out" in this way, however like the portrait may be, is necessarily a first-rate artist. Very probably he could not draw a mouth or an ear rightly; one thing only he had grown skilful in—catching the character of the profile of the face. A painter would rather have the credit of the engraved head on the title-page than of all the silhouettes; to have drawn that head, and still more, to have imagined it, is to have given proof of considerable strength. The other designs, slight to make and inexpensive to engrave, are just the thing for a holiday-book.

We know not how else to characterize the "Bryant Homestead Book"† than as simply preposterous. Mr. Bryant cannot be made ridiculous, certainly not by what others can do, but no man's dignity can be wholly uninjured by having such stuff put into print apropos of him and his busy and useful life. We shall quote a few lines, that every reader may take warning, and, his curiosity as to the possible badness of a book once satisfied, may keep away from this one:

"Pause: we want breath to fix this scenarium in our mind. Here is nascent drama. This climax is a duality; an antithesis. [Thanatopsis is being quoted in bits.] Will the sleep of the grave put a stop to soul progression? . . . And how many THOUSAND 'thousand years' prophecy of Dante' will roll over Bryant's earth-tomb? His grand Anthropological Cairn for ALL of mortal clay!"

"Who can tell? What is DIES IRÆ? Do elements need rest? Is DIES IRÆ the final examination, and will the soul, the Life-Pupil, be put back or forward, according to progression in Life Apprenticeship? Put back to Primal Nonentity at final Revision?"

The illustrations consist of a badly focussed photographic portrait; of a clever etching by Mr. Nast; and of a number of landscape illustrations, not very unlike those which Mr. Hows often publishes. One essential part of the book is the following :

"PUBLISHERS' NOTICE.

"In a volume intended to do honor to our Veteran Poet, and to gratify his hosts of friends and admirers with sketches of his home-life, in connection with themes from his works, any publisher might take pride in placing his imprint. For the plan, the matter, and the manner of this work we cannot claim credit, as they belong alone to its author, our responsibility being limited to that of our own vocation."

We sympathize with Mr. Putnam, and commend the step he takes in

* "Shakespeare's Midsummer Night's Dream. The designs by P. Konewka; engraved by W. H. Morse. Vignette by H. W. Smith." Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1870.

† "The Bryant Homestead Book. By The Idle Scholar." Illustrated. New York: G. P. Putnam & Son. 1870.

haking off a responsibility which would be grave even for his long-established publishing-house.

Among the English books imported by our booksellers is an admirable new one, the "Fairy Land" of Mr. Doyle and Mr. Allingham.* Mr. Allingham's charming poems have been allied before this with excellent art. His little book, published some years ago, "The Music-Master, and other Poems," contained noble designs by Dante Rossetti, one by Millais, and a number by Arthur Hughes, among which was that exquisite little picture of the elves dancing in a ring under the rising moon, all reflected in still water. This picture is as sure to be remembered as the little poem of Allingham's:

"Up the airy mountain,
Down the rushy glen,
We daren't go a-milking
For fear of little men :
Wee folk, good folk,
Trooping all together,
Green jacket, red cap,
And white owl's feather."

In this volume we have our poet doing fairy work again, and with all his old gracefulness and all his old charm. As for Richard Doyle's illustrations, we have often expressed our admiration of his talent and our enjoyment of his work. The present is a subject wholly suited to his peculiar power. The engraving has been done delicately and well by Mr. Evans, and the coloring has evidently been directed by the designer. The pictures altogether are perfectly fairy-like, and wholly delightful.

Another good imported book is the "Dickens Christmas Stories," with the original illustrations,† of which the admirable etchings by Leech, illustrating the "Christmas Carol," are the best, and among Leech's best work.

A new edition has appeared of one of the best illustrated books ever published, the octavo "Tennyson," first published by Moxons in 1859.‡ It is well known, but cannot be in too many homes, nor become dear to too many young lovers of pictures. The "St. Cecilia" by Dante Rossetti, the "Godiva" by Holman Hunt, and the "Poisoned Wound of King Edward" by Millais, are among the most truly imaginative illustrations that exist, and Mulready's "Life and Thought are Gone Away" is worthy of their company. There are a dozen more designs by the same artists, all entirely above the common standard, all works of independent value and first-rate importance.

MORE CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

THERE is much to commend in the plan of Mrs. Miller's anecdotes of animals.§ They were designed to have a scientific unity which is usually wanting in similar collections, and to convey to the young some idea of the relations of species in the animal kingdom. A secondary, and still scarcely secondary, object was to draw moral inferences from the creature to the Creator, and to fortify children against that spirit which doubts the existence or goodness of God because of the evil and dangerous attributes of certain beasts. A twofold interest had therefore to be excited, and a union of two styles attempted, with manifest chance of failure. Failure is not the word we should apply to this work, neither should we call it a success, the author herself admitting that she has not written exactly to suit readers of any age, and cannot expect her narrative to be fully useful without the assistance of older persons. Her dialogues are of an unreal kind, which might or might not be detected by children, who would certainly be apt to find her style too elevated. It is sound doctrine, however, that she gives her readers when she tells them: "We must first learn to look at things exactly as they are. . . . All that those have to do at first who study in the great book of nature is to be sure that they see right." As helps to this there are numerous engravings scattered through the text, and most of them well drawn.

A book which shows much greater aptitude for interesting and instructing the young is Saintine's "Dame Nature,"|| as the translator dubs it. No parent need be at hand when his bright boy or girl is reading it, for it expounds itself and holds fast the reader, who thinks he is told the most charming stories when he is really listening to lectures on the origin of com-

* "In Fairy Land. A series of pictures from the Elf-World." By Richard Doyle, with a poem by William Allingham. New York: D. Appleton & Co. 1870.

† "Christmas Books. By Charles Dickens. With illustrations." Fields, Osgood & Co. 1869.

‡ "Tennyson's Poems Illustrated by T. Creswick and others. A new edition." London and New York: Geo. Routledge & Sons.

§ "Cats and Dogs; or, Notes and Anecdotes of Two Great Families of the Animal Kingdom. By Mrs. Hugh Miller." Boston: D. Lothrop & Co. 1869.

|| "Dame Nature and her Three Daughters. A Grandpapa's Talks and Stories about Natural History and Things of Daily Use. Translated from the French of X. B. Saintine." New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1869.

mon things, like cotton-thread, silk, sugar, pasteboard, etc., all which is evolved out of a dispute in the game of guessing—arising from that very important first question, "Is it animal? Is it vegetable? Is it mineral?" Grandpapa's conversation abounds in humor and tender sentiment, and the little folks' responses are wonderfully natural. His audience, mixed of dolls and dolls' owners, should be indefinitely enlarged for all good children.

At the end of the third or fourth volume which Miss Warner has devoted to a story * in which spiritual exercises and tolerably carnal experiences are curiously commingled, in a way which we find entirely peculiar to this author, Daisy has come to her twenty-first year only, and in the ordinary course of things might be expected to do duty as the heroine for two or three novels more. But her lover, having been hopefully converted, is now dead, and Daisy's available life is now ended; or, as she says, it is "begun on a new basis." Miss Warner's readers, then, are probably done with her; and, considering that she has been from the first the most wearisome and self-complacent little bore that even Miss Warner ever invented, we suppose no one who has followed her progress thus far will be sorry to see her put finally on the shelf.

So far as fiction aims to assist by example in the formation of character, a tale of any one people or place is good for any other, and "Filling up the Chinks"† may profitably be read by American boys, as we doubt not it has been by English. It is a painful story, that ends brightly, but it is of a sort of life—in a large manufacturing town—which is not familiar to us in this country, and whose awful sadness consists in the hopelessness of its victims, and in the want of means of escape to a change of scene and occupation; in the fixedness of horizon, in short, which is the lot of the laboring poor in England. Whether the contrast between this state of things and the opportunities for employment and social advancement which abound among us will strike young American readers, we cannot determine; but we feel sure that, if they could choose, they would prefer a less doleful illustration of a most excellent text.

As a contributor to the *Riverside Magazine*, we presume "Vieux Moustache" to have written in this instance ‡ rather for boys than for grown people. In either case, we consider the writing of the story the best part of it, as it is the most original. In spite of the very free use of "local color," we think we discern Oliver Twist in Robert Trulyn, and Nancy Sykes in Bella, and Jupe or Joey Grimaldi in Rolly Gray, and even Mr. Sleary in Dan Mace. Here is the author's epitome of his hero's career: "A little gentleman—a burglar's boy—a Randall's Island boy—then on a Kentucky horse—champion rider in the circus—and last a gentleman"—last of all a cavalry officer in the Federal army. The book derives its title from the well-known physiological fact that an accident to the brain may temporarily or for ever destroy the memory of past events, and thus cut off the previous life from that which begins immediately after the accident. The author backs this up with the proper authorities in his text and in a foot-note, and appears to think that he has thus accounted for the most improbable incident of his invention. The boy's adventures, however, before he tumbles into the quarry are an unlikelihood not so easily explainable. When once that is got over, there is a good deal to interest, and nothing to offend in the narrative, much as it deals with "low down" people; and it is, as already remarked, well written.

"Nanny's Christmas"§ is a nondescript fragment, without beginning or end—without a bad boy or girl, or a moral of any kind, and with supernaturally bright children (age not stated, and only inferable from the wood-cuts), who have plenty of sleigh-riding, and coasting, and play-games, and make each other lots of presents, with inspired mottoes, like—

"Nanny gives to Cousin Will this book,
And hopes in it he will often look;"

or this—

"Lucy gives you an arrow and a bow,
And hopes you will not shoot at dear Fido."

On the whole, we cannot liken this performance to anything else than fitting out a Christmas show-window, and inviting all the little penniless boys and girls of the neighborhood to come and look at it from the outside—as long as they please.

* "Daisy. Second Series. Continued from 'Melbourne House.' By the author of 'Wide, Wide World,' 'Walks from Eden,' 'House of Israel,' etc." Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1869.

† "Filling up the Chinks. By the Hon. Mrs. J. R. Greene." New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. 1869.

‡ "Two Lives in One. By Vieux Moustache." New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1870.

§ "Nanny's Christmas. A Story for Children." Philadelphia: Claxton, Remsen & Haféfinger. 1870.

"Nidworth" * is an allegory. The three wands are Riches, Knowledge, and Love—the last being Charity in its broadest sense. The hero tries each in turn, and finds that Riches bring disgust, Knowledge discontent, but Love alone happiness. This story is one of the best of its class, being absolutely pure and high-toned, without cant of any kind. But the form in which it is cast is one to make it appeal to those young people whose consciences and imaginations are already active—and they are chiefly girls—rather than to boys, for whom we suppose it was written, and whose benevolence is the weakest part of them. Any boy who is old enough to understand the language of the book, to "analyze his feelings," to comprehend "legitimate results," or the "idea of the negative grace of self-renunciation," would be old enough to object to the magic introduced as one of the circumstances in a boy's struggle through life, and be able to point out the weaknesses which its use begets in the subject. Only one side of riches and knowledge is permitted to be shown, falsifying them, therefore, to that extent, and falsifying their effect on human character by making the hero obtain them through supernatural means and in supernatural quantities. Still, it would be too much to say that such books as "Nidworth" are without good result. They affect the religious imagination, and make the practice of virtue seem beautiful. And if they cannot convince selfish boys that it is "lots of fun" to go through a forest in the night to feed soup to a sick old hag, they will at least create a moral glow in the bosom of all those children who are already in practice of similar goodness.

"Ting-a-ling" † is the name of the fairy-hero of this rollicking set of stories. He is the smallest kind of a fairy, as one may guess by knowing that his sweetheart, Ling-a-ting, was drowned in a lady's tear. He is the intimate friend of the largest and most amiable of giants, and the two together confound the machination of the most deformed of dwarfs, in aid of the loveliest of princesses and the most gallant of princes. The regular fairy story machinery is all put in requisition, especially that of the Arabian Nights. But as no person capable of inventing so good stories as those of the Thousand and One Nights will ever do so with the earnestness that gives those immortal tales their chief fascination, so the author of "Ting-a-ling," though he relates with an ingenuity which will claim the youthful attention, does so in such an evident spirit of burlesque that he must draw forth the protestations of all but the very youngest of his readers—or the oldest. A good deal of enjoyment, we should think, could be got out of it when the oldest read it to the youngest, especially from the account of the five magicians, and their offering to the dwarf. The pictures are notably commendable, being full of humor; and the book is altogether attractively got up.

The Pictorial Field-book of the War of 1812; or, Illustrations, by Pen and Pencil, of the History, Biography, Scenery, Relics, and Traditions of the Last War for American Independence. By Benson J. Lossing. (New York: Harper & Brothers.)—This is a noteworthy work, partaking of the nature of what the French call *mémoires pour servir à l'histoire*, and a rich archaeological collection, with its profuse and handsome illustrations in sketches, views, plans, monuments, portraits, caricatures, autographs, medals, arms, remarkable houses, and scraps of contemporaneous poetry. Not only is the history of the campaigning of 1812–14 attempted, but also that of the civil administration and leading political events of the period extending from the Revolution to the treaty of Ghent. To these are added personal sketches and biographies not only of prominent public characters, but of officers, soldiers, sailors, and scouts, ambassadors, writers, and editors, and of people not connected with either the civil or military events of the period. Note-book and pencil in hand, the author has travelled more than ten thousand miles between the great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico, visiting nearly all the scenes of the incidents recorded, receiving accounts from survivors, and sketching scenery, battle-fields, and notable localities. The result is a handsome volume of more than one thousand pages, which one may open anywhere at random and find interesting.

Criticism of the book as a history of the War of 1812, or of the civil and political events of the period, is disarmed by its title. So much diversified material enters into its composition that the unity and sequence of a strictly historical narrative must necessarily suffer. Omissions, contradictions, and confusion of detail necessarily occur. Here is one instance:

* "Nidworth, and his Three Magic Wands. By E. Prentiss." Boston: Roberts Brothers. 1870.

† "Ting-a-ling. By Frank R. Stockton." New York: Hurd & Houghton. 1870.

Jefferson's conduct in the matter of the attacks on Washington and his administration in Freneau's paper, is an important point in the history of the political events of 1792–3. In a note (p. 71), Mr. Lossing tells us that it would be both ungenerous and unjust to believe that the bitter attacks made upon all the measures of the administration were approved by Mr. Jefferson. But in another note (p. 78) he fully convicts Mr. Jefferson of the offence by saying that [his conduct was not manly; that although he had always denied complicity with Freneau, the very minutes made by Jefferson himself and printed in his *Anas* sufficiently indicate his relative position at that time. And to this Mr. Lossing adds testimony of the almost dying declaration of Freneau that the paper the *National Gazette* was entirely under the control of Jefferson, who dictated or wrote the most violent attacks on Washington. And now comes confusion of details. The text of page 71 tells us the *National Gazette* was Fenno's paper, "the supporter of the Government policy," made spicy by "Hamilton's vigorous retorts;" and that Freneau's *United States Gazette* "was believed to be under the control of" Jefferson. And yet a note appended to this very text speaks of the *National Gazette* as Mr. Jefferson's organ, edited by Freneau; and says that "Fenno published the *United States Gazette*, the supporter of the measures of the administration." Errors so glaring should be corrected; and a careful revision would cause many less glaring to disappear.

The military operations are well described for popular reading, and many of the battles, particularly the naval engagements, are admirably painted in words. A peculiar interest is thrown about many of them by the reminiscences of many who took part in them. It strikes us that Mr. Lossing disposes in somewhat too summary a manner of the "Beauty and Booty" and "Cotton-bale" features of the battle of New Orleans. They are large and distinct in the general popular belief, and should be treated in such a manner as to settle them satisfactorily as true or false. To say that the first is "doubtless wholly untrue" is perhaps rather a strong statement. The definite historical charge is that, on the 8th of January, 1815, "Beauty and Booty" were the parole and countersign of the British army. The belief in its truth at the period of the battle was founded on the concurrent report of a large number of British prisoners and deserters. That so many men, brought in from different parts of the field, and at various stages of the battle, should concur in the one statement is, to say the least, singular. The belief that General Jackson had saved New Orleans from the fate threatened by the British countersign was in good part the cause of the immense reward of gratitude which the country conceived was due him. It has been treated in the United States as a historical fact for fifty years; and having thus reached the dignity of a national accusation, it was not beneath the notice of the nation accused. If, as is claimed for England, it is a calumny, it could easily be refuted by the simple statement of the true parole and countersign which, as a matter of course, were borne on the orderly books of every corps in the army. It was correctly remarked at the time that the fame of General Pakenham and his officers, the character of the British military—strongly implicated by a charge of this nature—and the honor of the British Government, all demanded that the charge be refuted if capable of refutation. In the light of the expressed anxiety for plunder by the officers of Pakenham's army, as found in intercepted letters, the charge becomes by no means improbable. Colonel Malcolm, writing to the rear-admiral of that name, is chagrined that his share of the prize-money at St. Mary's "did not exceed five hundred pounds." Sir Thomas Cochrane laments that "if they clear thirty thousand pounds, it will be as much as they will do." Admiral Cockburn speaks of being "fortunate here in our small way." Another officer writes, "We have had some fine fun and plenty of plunder at St. Mary's. How are you off for tables and chests of drawers, etc.?" Captain Westful of the *Anaconda* is informed by another that "after ransacking St. Mary's we brought away property to the amount of fifty thousand pounds." From such communications as these, we can imagine the "fine fun and plenty of plunder" these gentlemen had promised themselves at New Orleans.

As to the cotton-bales, Mr. Lossing is not clear. His general proposition that "the common impression that Jackson's breastworks were constructed chiefly of cotton-bales is an erroneous one" is correct. But the further statement that "a few were used at the end next the river, but they were not useful and were rejected," is not so satisfactory. The fact appears to be, from the best authorities, that some bales of cotton were taken to form the cheeks of the embrasures—a purpose for which their size and form would make them look quite tempting; but the enemy's balls struck the bales, scattered them in all directions, and set them on fire.

On the Edge of the Storm. By the author of "Mademoiselle Mori," "Sydonie's Dowry." (New York: G. P. Putnam & Son. 1869.)—Without any especial merits beyond its good taste and cleverness, which, however, are qualities rare enough to be noteworthy whenever they are found, this story is still very pleasant reading. Its scene is laid in France, and the time is the beginning of the Revolution. What has pleased us most in it is the even-handedness with which the author deals with both parties in the contest, neither making the aristocrats all angels nor the republicans all fiends, but describing both with impartiality. The same evenness is found in other respects throughout her work, her characters being all well and carefully drawn, and her style somewhat monotonously pure. Another pleasant thing about it is the care with which painful scenes and incidents are avoided, while, at the same time, one is made to see the possible ease with which the reader's feelings might have been harrowed. Altogether, we find the book to be the most agreeable addition Mr. Putnam has yet made to his library of European literature.

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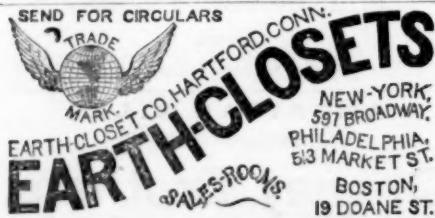
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